

THE FEDERAL EMPLOYEE, NAVAL LOGISTICS
AND MOTIVATION

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AND MOTIVATION

BY

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

PROBLEM BACKGROUND AND THESIS OBJECTIVE

It takes little more than a glance at a daily newspaper to recognize that the United States is experiencing revolution on a multitude of fronts. Sandwiched between the changes in male hair styles, and the volatile possibilities of youth, revolutions of every size, shape, and composition are occurring. Among the better known examples are revolutions which could be called: moral, ecological, technological, economic, medical, consumer, transportation, leisure time and minority group. A common point in most of these revolutions is that they require a financial base. It is becoming quite clear that Congress is, and will continue to face ever increasing pressure to provide this financial base for the more "humanitarian" of these revolutions. It is also clear that a portion of this required funding will be provided from Congressional reductions in defense spending.¹ This possibility of

¹Arguments might be raised regarding the FY 1973 budget wherein humanitarian spending exceeds defense spending, yet the defense budget is greater, in absolute dollars, than in 1972. However, it is felt that consideration must be given to the fact that the DOD budget has been reduced in terms of percentage of GNP. Coupled with continually rising weapons acquisition costs, DOD is facing reduced inputs. For a detailed account of this subject, see Fred Lardner, "Defense Spending - Up or Down," U.S. Naval Academy Alumni Association Magazine, March, 1972, p. 25.

reduced resources, becomes the doorway to this thesis. Certainly a military manager faced with reduced funding must become extremely employee conscious. However, this reasoning is not meant to convey the opinion that a manager has to be saddled with resource reductions before becoming employee conscious. In fact, the idea for this thesis came during a period when funding was more than sufficient, yet employee output appeared to be far less than maximum capacity. The point being made is that military managers now facing the problem of achieving adequate levels of performance will have to meet an even greater challenge, when the current problem is aggravated by resource reductions. The solution to the problem, appears to lie in finding the key to obtaining a higher degree of output per individual employee, and this key, at least to this author, is represented by the subject of motivation. It is strongly felt that increased output from Federal employees requires improvement of current motivational methodology. There is little doubt in the author's mind that small improvements in employee motivational levels will reap large dividends in productivity and performance.

Accordingly, it will be the objective of this thesis to study the motivational level of the Federal employee, to surface constraints to higher motivation, and to assess the adequacy of the prevailing Federal motivational philosophy, and its accompanying motivational tools. Further, the study will examine the theories of modern behavioral science literature, and show the relationship between the theory, and the results of a field study at a Navy operational command. The field study will include an analysis of a work group, through use of "before and after" methodology.

SCOPE

The subject of motivation and the Federal service worker is indeed broad and complex. Certainly it is logical that because of the large variation in missions among departments and agencies, that the roots of motivation must also be varied. Although the author believes that an agency-by-agency motivational study is necessary, it is also recognized that the size of this task would be monumental. Therefore, this thesis will not undertake a motivational analysis that includes all Federal workers. In fact, this thesis will not attempt to capture the problems of the Department of Defense, or even the Department of the Navy. What the thesis will do, is to focus on an area small enough to be manageable, yet of major significance to the defense posture of this country. The Federal employees chosen for study, work in an environment called Naval logistics--this Federal worker is involved with the billions of dollars spent each year to keep the wheels of defense turning.²

A second reason for selection of Navy logistical personnel for this study, is that the author has had ten years experience in the field, and directly supervised a work group of fifty individuals during the past four years.

Hopefully, the results obtained through this study of Naval logistics personnel will provide evidence for broader application within DOD, or even other federal activities. However, further

²Naval logistics is synonymous with the Naval Material Command. There are approximately 200,000 civilian employees in this command, that has total logistical support responsibility for the U.S. Navy.

comment on this possibility will be withheld until the final chapter's conclusions.

PRIMARY AND SUBSIDIARY RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following primary research question was designed to permit an all encompassing study of what appears to the author to be the heart of any motivational undertaking, while at the same time keeping within the boundaries established in the previous section:

. In the field of Naval logistics, does the present philosophy relative to motivation of Federal employees need revitalization?

The answer to this primary question will be obtained through a systematic attack on the following four interrelated subsidiary questions:

1. What is motivation, and what is its relationship with Naval logistics?
2. What is the present Federal motivational philosophy, and what motivational tools are available to the Navy manager?
3. Based on a field study of a major Navy logistical activity, what is the employee motivational level, and are the motivational tools adequate?
4. Do the motivational theories of Likert, Maslow, Herzberg, Argyris and McGregor explain the results of a "before and after" study of a logistical work group?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research for this thesis consisted of a two-phased program: First, all data relative to the "before and after" study of the operational work group was obtained directly by the author during a two year period as supervisor of the F4J "Phantom" aircraft inventory control section, at the Naval Aviation Supply Office in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Additional research at ASO was conducted over the past six months, and included the use of questionnaires, and interviews obtained during a one week field trip in January. Research relative to "outsider" opinions of ASO personnel was obtained through use of questionnaires with ASO customers (Naval Air Station personnel), interviews with civilian industrial contractors, and ten Navy supply officers.

Phase two of the research, consisted of library work on the history of motivational thought, and the theories of the "classic" behavioral scientists. This library research was also backed up by copies of instructions, and reports furnished by the Civil Service Commission, and the Office of Motivation and Incentives, Department of the Navy. This written data is supplemented by interviews with top management in both these activities.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The organization of this thesis is intended to lead in logical sequence toward results that will support a conclusion regarding the question of revitalization of the motivational philosophy within the world of Naval logistics.

Following this introduction, Chapter II sets the stage for the entire study. Motivation is defined, and its relationship and importance to Naval logistics is presented. Chapter III, is a historical survey of the author's interpretation of the most significant contributions to the history of motivational theory. The second half of Chapter III is a close examination of the theories of the giants of modern motivational literature-- Likert, Maslow, Herzberg, Argyris and McGregor. This chapter provides the necessary framework required for the operational analysis that follows.

Chapter IV focuses on the prevailing motivational philosophy of the Civil Service Commission, and discusses the motivational tools available to the Navy manager. Highlighted in this chapter is a detailed look at the Federal Incentive Awards Program, which the Navy considers its major motivational tool. The chapter also covers the Navy Merit Promotion Program, and the Performance Appraisal and Rating Program. Included as justification for much of the written word that is referenced in this chapter, are interviews with key personnel from the Civil Service Commission and the Navy Office of Civilian Manpower Management.

Chapter V is the main thrust of the thesis, and represents a look at the motivation in a "real world," environment. Questionnaires and interviews are utilized to determine an employee motivational level, and to identify motivational needs. The effectiveness of the actual motivational tools is examined, and the aforementioned "before and after" look is taken at a logistical work group. This research report, actually describes the profile of a group of employees before and after they were assigned to a specially created work group, and shows the effects of their motivational level on logistical support. Chapter IV also presents a unique section entitled "Listen to Them Talk," wherein a sample of interesting comments from employees is used to provide additional detail on the motivating factors identified by the questionnaire research. The chapter concludes with a section that examines these same motivating factors and their relationship to the work group, and the Chapter III theories. A brief summary of the thesis is presented in the final chapter, in a format corresponding to conclusions reached on the subsidiary research questions. Using these subsidiary conclusions as a base, the thesis closes with an answer to the primary question, a specific recommendation, and a "glimmer of sunshine."

CHAPTER II

CONCEPTS OF MOTIVATION

It seems that the logical progression in discussing the subject of motivation is first a definition of the term. An examination of the word "motivation" is therefore the main thrust of this chapter. In addition, the importance of motivation within the parameters of Naval logistics is discussed.

MOTIVATION DEFINED

The research employed for the definition, admittedly, was quite frustrating in that every book, every author has a different description of the term. Perhaps Paul T. Young expresses the personal feelings of this author most vividly:

Motivation is a word that wears a halo. It is like justice, democracy, freedom. Everybody approves of it, yet there is little agreement to what it means.¹

In view of the plethora of definitions available, it is felt that a dictionary might be the most appropriate starting point: "motivation--that which motivates; inducement; incentive--motivate-to provide with a motive."² This same source, fortunately, is a bit more descriptive

¹Paul T. Young, Motivation and Emotion: A Survey of the Determinants of Human and Animal Activity (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1961), p.xi.

²The Random House Dictionary of the English Language, Jess Stein, ed., Unabridged Edition, 1967, p.934.

of the term "motive": "some inner drive, impulse, intention that causes a person to act or behave in a certain way; incentive."³ So, combining the most significant features of the above definitions, one might in a more rhetorical manner state that motivation is an intangible quality resulting from regulation of individual behavior, and that motivational theory relates to the methodology of providing a force or motive that results in behavioral movement in a desired direction.⁴ To this author, then, motivational theory, in an organizational context, relates to the process by which individuals are stimulated to action toward the accomplishment of organizational goals and objectives. It is considered that Robert Dubin provides a basis for these personal conclusions:

Motivation may be defined as the complex of forces starting and keeping a person at work in an organization. To put it generally, motivation starts and maintains activity along a prescribed line. Motivation is something that moves the person to action, and continues him on the course of action initiated.... Clearly there are forces inside the person starting and maintaining activity. Whether we call them drives, instincts, wishes, needs or tension states, they can be described as mechanisms of the organism....⁵

³Ibid.

⁴This sentence takes the intangible tone of Young, and combines the Random House definitions into a single personal definition. The approach, however, is similar to that of Ernest Dichter in Motivating Human Behavior (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971), pp. 1-10.

⁵Robert Dubin, Human Relations in Administration (2nd ed.; Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961), p. 49.

Kolasa, considers the inside force as a need, in what he calls "the motivational process." As he explains it:

A need is a lack or deficit of something within the organism When it arises in an individual, it is the beginning of a chain of events. Something happens, some behavior occurs . . . and is directed toward a goal. Arriving at the goal satisfies the need and the motivational process is complete⁶

It logically follows, therefore, that motivational theory deals with the identification of these complex forces or needs, and the determination of methodology that will permit regulation of the so-called "mechanisms" toward desirable behavioral patterns, i.e., behavioral patterns which lead to efficient and timely attainment of organizational goals.⁷

Young supports this regulation of behavior theme, but emphasizes the need for control of environmental influences:

Motivation is not restricted to the process of evoking behavior; it includes an analysis of environmental conditions which sustain activity and which regulate and direct its patterning . . .⁸ the accounting for the purposiveness of behavior.

Dubin has stated it even more profoundly:

When we see motivation as involving an exchange between the individual and his social environment, we have the key in understanding the meaning of motivation in organizations. It can now make sense to talk about "motivating soldiers to fight," . . . or motivating workers." In each instance we are talking about someone imbedded in a social system, an organization. These statements imply that we reach outside

⁶Blair, J. Kolasa, Introduction to Behavioral Sciences for Business (New York: John Wiley & Son, Inc., 1969), pp. 249-250.

⁷Dichter, Motivating Human Behavior, p. 17.

⁸Young, Motivation and Emotion, p. 17.

in order to get them to perform to their highest level of expectation. Indeed, it is only because we can picture motivation as a form of exchange that is it even meaningful to talk about "motivating organization members." Without this notion of exchange between the person and the social system in which he operates, motivation would be beyond social control, and the managers of organizations would be helpless to channel motivations, or to modify the level at which they operate.⁹

The late Douglas McGregor was also a strong proponent of a favorable organizational climate:

A statement of strategy that has long seemed to me to be consistent with the goals of economic enterprise on one hand, and with . . . the motivational nature of man on the other is this: Management must seek to create conditions (an organizational environment) such that members of the organization . . . can best achieve their own goals by directing their efforts toward the goals of the organization.¹⁰

A summary at this point seems in order. Motivation as seen by the previous writers, is a complex of forces that start and keep a person at work--something that moves a person to action in a certain direction. Motivation is an inner mechanism drive, yet can be induced by an outer influence such as an exchange with the organizational environment, or a proper incentive. Motivation helps answer the fundamental question as to why, or what it is that makes people do what they do, and finally motivation is a major factor in determining an individual's ultimate performance. Dubin adds to this summary:

Motivation then comes down to this. We all possess the basic instinctual drives. These do not by themselves result in determining behaviors or the level of effort and performance

⁹Dubin, Human Relations in Administration, pp. 46-47.

¹⁰Douglas McGregor, The Professional Manager, ed. by Caroline McGregor and Warren H. Bennis (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 11.

put into the behaviors. The social environment provides the guidelines by which choices among alternative behaviors are made, and in exchange received from the individual his conformity to the appropriate expectations placed upon him.¹¹

Only for the sake of emphasizing the direction of this study is the following paragraph considered necessary:

Motivation will be considered throughout the balance of this paper to be an inner, instinctual mechanism that can be regulated by outside influences. It is the motivational theory that provides the best outside influences (methodology), that this study seeks--the theories that provide the individual employee with that inner drive that attains organizational goals, or as Herzberg so perfectly commented:

If I kick my dog, he will move. And when I want him to move again, what must I do? I must kick him again. Similarly, I can charge a man's battery, and then recharge it, and recharge it again. But it is only when he has his own generator that we talk about motivation. He then needs no outside stimulation. He wants to do it.¹²

MOTIVATION AND LOGISTICS

This second section of Chapter II, coupled with the previous examination of the term "motivation," completes the first subsidiary question of this study: "What is motivation, and what is its relationship with Naval logistics?"

¹¹Dubin, Human Relations in Administration, pp. 46-47.

¹²Frederick Herzberg, "One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?" Harvard Business Review, Vol. XLII, No.1, (January-February, 1968), p.55.

On the surface, it would seem that motivation relates to Naval logistics, just as motivation might relate to the automotive industry, or to any environment with people involved in a work situation. While this paper, will not totally dispute this logic, it will attempt to show a more "urgent" relationship between motivation and logistics, than found between motivation and other work situations. It will show motivation as an extremely critical factor in the logistics operation.

First, a look at this operation seems appropriate. There are approximately 200,000 federal employees involved in the field of logistics within the Department of the Navy.¹³ These individuals are responsible for world-wide logistical support of the Navy's vast inventories of ships and aircraft. The logistical system that employs these workers, revolves around the four Inventory Control Points (ICP's) shown on the next page in Figure 1. These ICP's designate, procure, distribute and control all spare parts, for repair of Navy ships and aircraft. Each ICP is designated, as noted in Figure 1, by the type of material under its cognizance. Figure 2, also on the next page, shows the logistics cycle. Using the ICP as a logical point of entry, it is possible to quickly and briefly show the overall operation. The ICP, in conjunction with technical supervision from a Naval Systems Command, designates and purchases spare parts from industrial contractors. Upon completion of manufacture by the contractor, the ICP directs distribution of the material throughout

¹³This total was provided by the Office of Civilian Manpower Management, Department of the Navy, on February 14, 1972.

- ELECTRONICS SUPPLY OFFICE, GREAT LAKES
- SHIPS PARTS CONTROL MECHANICS BURG
- AVIATION SUPPLY OFFICE, PHILA
- FUEL SUPPLY OFFICE, WASH

Fig. 1.-- Navy Inventory Control Points

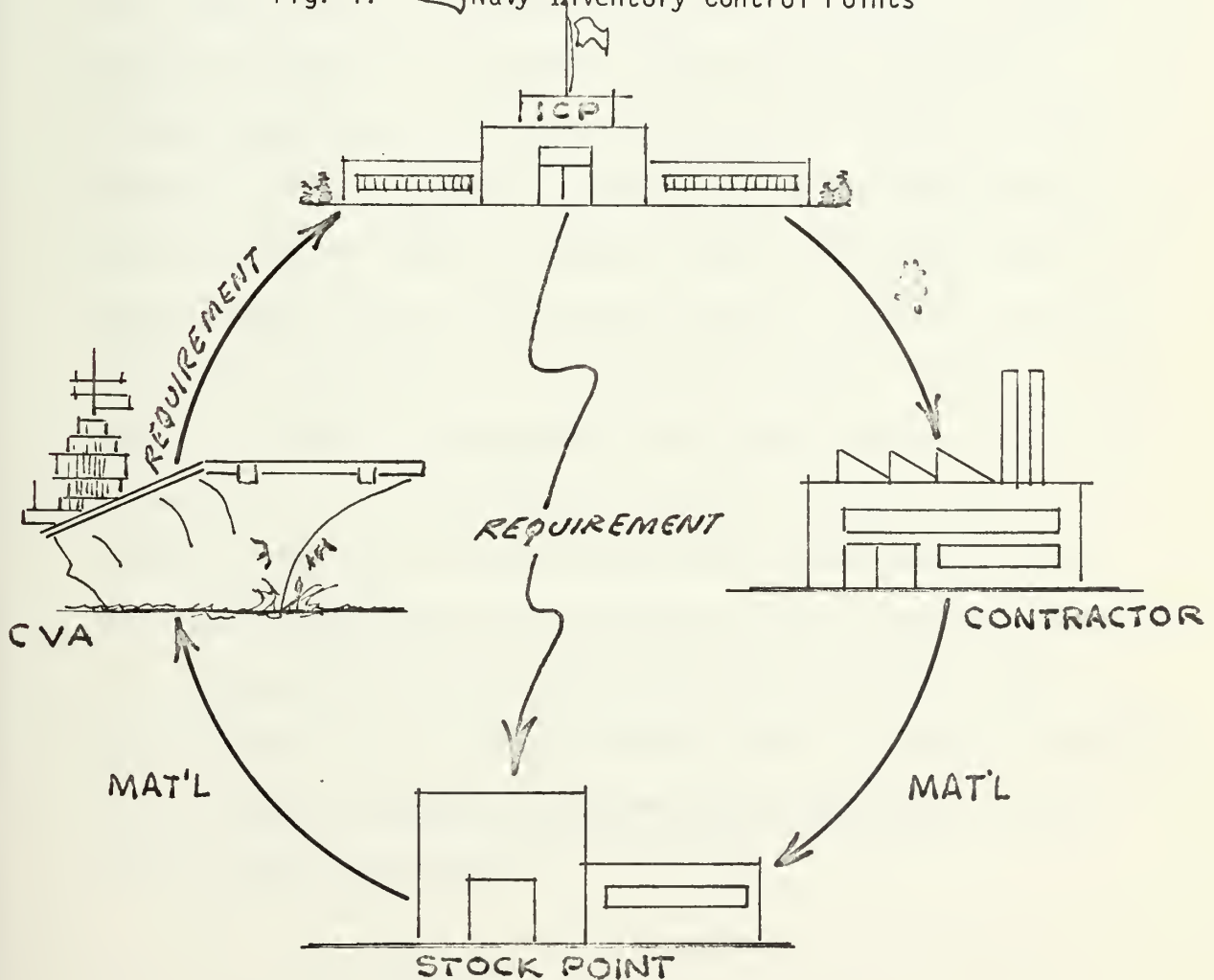


Fig. 2.-- Navy Logistics Cycle

the world to the applicable Navy stock points. These stock points are shore locations, i.e., shipyards, supply centers, and air stations throughout the world. They, in turn, hold the material until required by a customer (shown in Figure two as a Naval aircraft located somewhere at sea on an attack aircraft carrier). The customer in this example requires an item not carried in the ship's inventory, so the requirement is transmitted electronically to the applicable ICP. The ICP through its "real time" inventory control capability locates the material at the stock point shown, and by computer directs the stock point to airship the material to the aircraft carrier. While this example portrays a smooth functioning ADP operation, it also indicates the need for a behind the scenes "manual" operation of enormous proportions. The system requires people to make it function properly--people to purchase the right quality, the right quantity, at the right time--people to feed the "real-time" system--people to keep the funds flowing and the wheels turning. These are the people this paper is interested in--the people who support the fleet. They must, at all costs, be motivated to the highest level possible. As in industry, it is not the degree of profit at stake--it is the security of the United States at stake, and in many cases involves the lives of those ensuring this security. This is the point referred to at the beginning of this section, that the motivation of the federal worker, i.e., how well he does his job, is a crucial ingredient to the success of logistics, and makes the relationship, in this writer's mind, quite urgent.

CHAPTER III

THE ROOTS OF MOTIVATIONAL THEORY: AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

THE PRECURSORS

The history of motivational theory is well documented in the literature of experimental psychology, and it is indeed interesting to note that the very roots of the subject stem largely from the concepts of Darwinian evolution.¹ However, the purpose of this survey, fortunately falls within the parameters of motivation as applied to work, and presents a more manageable undertaking. On the other hand, while the psychological side is chronologically well documented, the collection of the most significant achievements in work motivation proved quite frustrating. In that, this writer was unable to find any single source that had previously taken a historical approach, the achievements noted are a personal opinion of the most important events.

One can go back as far as Nebuchadnezzar in 604 B.C. and find writings that show a distinct relationship between work and motivation--

¹C.N.Cofer and M. H. Appley, Motivating: Theory and Research (new York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965), p. 19.

writings that tell of incentive payments, in food, for individual spinning and weaving accomplishments.²

A second important jump takes one to the Soho factory, in 1800, where James Watt and Matthew Boulton not only predated the scientific management theories of Babbage, Taylor, and Gilbreath, but also pursued a course of motivational methodology that was a century ahead of its time. Watt and Boulton paid incentive wages based on a piece rate system, established an insurance society for workers, and were the first to recognize the effects of a clean environment on productive output. They even went so far as to whitewash foundry walls to counteract darkness and dirt--a procedure that drew laughs from other English industrial activities, but a procedure that reaped profitable dividends for the Soho foundry.³

Although there seems to be no documented evidence to support the connection, Robert Owen's practices at New Lanark in 1810 follow closely those of the successful Soho operation. Owen, who is recognized as the "father of personnel management," had a personal philosophy that "man is the creature of circumstances,"⁴ and appreciated the vital part that the human factor represented in industry. He was decades ahead of his time in proposing that at least as much attention be paid to the welfare of human machines, as to inanimate machines. Believing that the volume and quality of a worker's output were influenced by

²Claude S. George, J., The History of Management Thought (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968), p.11.

³Ibid., p. 59.

⁴Ibid., p. 61.

environment both on and off the job, Owen's labor policies were paternalistic.⁵ In a speech before a group of factory owners, Owen stated:

Your living machines may be easily trained and directed to procure a large increase of pecuniary gain. Money spent on employees might give a 50 to 100 per cent return as opposed to a 15 per cent return on machinery. The economy of living machinery is to keep it neat and clean, treat it with kindness that its mental movements might not experience too much irritating friction.⁶

Unfortunately, although Owen's policies attracted wide attention, they drew little imitation.

The next major step, involving a motivational base, was the development of the first beneficial suggestion system by Charles Babbage, in 1832. Babbage stated: " . . . every person connected with it should derive more advantage from applying any improvement he might discover . . . his output will reflect this advantage, and his reward should be commensurate."⁷

Continuing this historical framework, the most significant event in the mid-1800's was the first known profit sharing plan. Henry R. Towne, president of Yale and Towne, designed a plan that not only guaranteed a definite wage to each employee, but one that split profits that exceeded a scientifically designed standard, fifty-fifty between employer and employee.⁸ While Towne is most

⁵Ibid.

⁶Ibid.

⁷Charles Babbage, On the Economy of Machinery and Manufacturers (London: Charles Knight, 1832), p.250.

⁸George, The History, p. 81.

famous for his inspiration of Frederick W. Taylor, his profit plan must be recorded as "revolutionary" in terms of work and motivation.

The literature of management theory credits Frederick W. Taylor as the "father of scientific management," while at the same time providing evidence that many of his theories were demonstrated earlier at Soho, and by Babbage, Metcalf and Towne.⁹ However, no one can dispute the genius of this man--he, in more modern terminology, "put it all together," and most importantly, documented his work for the world to see. Included in his writings are an extremely elaborate piece-rate incentive program that clearly represented his knowledge and recognition of worker motivation.¹⁰

Frank Gilbreth, another of the pioneers in scientific management, turned his brilliance to the subject of human relations upon his marriage to psychologist, Lillian Moller. These two, believed in the development of man to his fullest potential, through effective training, improved environments, and a healthy psychological outlook. "The Gilbreths were interested in improving the totality of man and his environment."¹¹

Henry L. Gantt was a contemporary and protege of Frederick Taylor, but differed from Taylor by his strong feelings for humanistic

⁹ Joseph L. Massie, Essentials of Management (2nd ed.; Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971), p.15.

¹⁰ Frederick W. Taylor, Principles of Scientific Management (New York: Harper & Bros., 1911), pp. 129-30.

¹¹ George, The History, p.99.

values. This combination, his knowledge of Taylor's scientific methods, and his humanistic feelings, led to the design of a comprehensive task-and-bonus wage system. The system was based on Taylor's differential piece-rate methods but was, in Gantt's words: "as far as possible removed from the old-fashioned method of fixing piece rates from records of total time taken to do a job."¹² Instead, the time allowed was based on standard shop conditions, and a first class performance. If the employee completed his assigned task, he received a bonus, but if he did not finish, he only received the daily rate. Unlike Taylor's system, the man was not penalized, through his pay, for a substandard performance. Wherever Gantt introduced this system, records indicated that production often more than doubled.¹³ Gantt was probably the first man in history truly convinced of the importance of the human element in management. He conveyed this opinion, and his understanding of principles that form many of today's most prominent motivational theories, when he stated:

We all know that when a man becomes interested in work, it frequently becomes the source not only of his livelihood but of his amusement as well. The first step, then, in attempting to establish habits of industry is to help the workman get interested in his work. If this can be done, the formation of the proper habits follows as a matter of course, and output will undoubtedly show improvement.¹⁴

Hugo Munsterberg was the first psychologist to actually push for interaction between psychology and industry. His book in 1913,

¹²Henry L. Gantt, "A Bonus System for Rewarding Labor," Transactions of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, Vol. 23. (1901), p. 373.

¹³George, The History, p. 101.

¹⁴Henry L. Gantt, "Industrial Leadership," in Gantt on Management, ed. by Alex W. Rathe (New York: American Management Association, 1961), p. 45.

Psychology and Industrial Efficiency, proposed that the role of psychologists in industry should be:

- (1) to help find the best men fitted for the work
- (2) to determine under what psychological conditions the greatest output per man could be achieved, and
- (3) to produce the influences that the human mind desired.¹⁵

The period from 1913 to 1927 saw little more than a few far-sighted managers practicing a form of human relations management on their own. However, there also seemed to be a streak of moralism flowing through industrial America during this same stretch, which set the stage for a formal human relations concept, and a base for formal theories of industrial motivation. So, the stage was set, all that was needed was a dramatic demonstration, and an articulate champion to command the attention of universal management.¹⁶

The breakthrough occurred at the Hawthorne works of Western Electric in Chicago. The articulate champion was Elton Mayo and the theory that evolved from his Hawthorne studies showed that workers tend to create informal groups to satisfy basic needs that modern industry had ignored. Further, he showed that these informal groups could exert a far stronger pull on worker motivation than the combined strength of money, discipline, working conditions, and even job security.¹⁷ Mayo found that unless management recognized this group spirit as the most crucial piece of the motivational puzzle, that

¹⁵Hugo Munsterberg, Psychology and Industrial Efficiency (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913), p. 24.

¹⁶Saul Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity (New York: American Management Association, 1963), p.17.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 19.

productivity would suffer as a result of group retaliation. Mayo proved decisively that management must satisfy worker needs, and above all make him feel important, if conflict, stalemate and stagnation were to be overcome. It only requires a quick glance to see the depth of Mayo's perception. His philosophies on social needs, the nature of man, and participative management have become the springboard of most every advanced theory regarding work and motivation.¹⁸ Since a major part of this thesis will be to examine these advanced theories, and apply them to federal employee motivational problems, only the names of the giants involved will be mentioned in conclusion of this historical overview.

The final section of this chapter will be devoted entirely to a detailed description of the work of these modern giants--Likert and the Michigan studies--Maslow and the hierarchy of needs--Herzberg and the Pittsburg studies--Argyris and the organization, and Douglas McGregor and the impact of management.

THE GIANTS

There is no single theory, or for that matter even a best theory, of employee motivation.¹⁹ Herzberg amplifies this hypothesis as follows:

The psychology of motivation is tremendously complex, and what has been unraveled with any degree of assurance is small indeed. But the dismal ratio of knowledge to speculation has not dampened the enthusiasm for new forms of

¹⁸Ibid., pp. 21-31.

¹⁹Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, p. 175.

snake oil that are constantly coming on the market²⁰

The quantity of "snake oil" on the market, since Mayo, created a problem when it came time to pick the giants for inclusion in this study. It must be admitted that the National Industrial Conference Board assisted with the ultimate selection of Likert, Maslow, Herzberg, Argyris and McGregor.²¹ It will be the theories of these men, that will be examined in the balance of this chapter, and that will be applied to the problems encountered in the Navy field study, in Chapter V. However, before commencing the theory examination, it seems necessary to provide a framework on which to hang these theories. Going back to Gellerman's statement that there is no best theory, perhaps a framework will offer a degree of visibility that will allow selection of the theory that will best satisfy the problem involved. The framework which appears most relevant to this situation, is Schein's four assumptions on the nature of people. These assumptions will be presented in their order of historical appearance. Schein describes the first of these assumptions as follows:

The Rational-Economic Man

1. Man is primarily motivated by economic incentives, and will do that which gets him the greatest economic gain.
2. Since economic incentives are under the control of the organization, man is essentially a passive agent to be manipulated, motivated and controlled by the organization.

²⁰ Herzberg, "One More Time," p. 53.

²¹ A survey by the NICB of 302 firms indicated that the theories of these five individuals influenced their procedures the most. See the National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, Studies in Personal Policy, No. 216 (New York: National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1970), p. 10.

3. Man's feelings are essentially irrational and must be prevented from interfering with his rational calculation of self-interest.
4. Organizations can and must be designed in such a way as to neutralize and control man's feelings and therefore his unpredictable traits.²²

Schein continues by adding that the best evidence of this image comes from the history of industry, but that fortunately, Mayo with his Hawthorne studies showed that workers have motives and needs that do not fit the rational-economic man mold.²³ Schein calls this assumption:

The Social Man

1. Man is basically motivated by social needs and obtains his basic sense of identity through relationships with others.
2. As a result of the industrial revolution and the rationalization of work, meaning has gone out of work itself and must therefore be sought in the social relationships on the job.
3. Man is more responsive to social forces of the peer group than to the incentives and controls of management.
4. Man is responsive to management to the extent that a supervisor can meet a worker's social needs, and needs for acceptance.²⁴

Schein's third assumption is that of the "Self-Actualizing Man," which will be the starting point for the theories of the giants.

Schein presents this description of the Self-Actualizing Man:

1. Man's motives fall into classes which are arranged in a hierarchy the lowliest of untalented men seeks self-actualization, a sense of meaning and accomplishment in his work, if his other needs are more or less filled.
2. Man seeks to be mature on the job and is capable of being so
3. Man is primarily self-motivated and self controlled
4. There is no inherent conflict between self-actualization and more effective organizational performance²⁵

²²Edgar H. Schein, Organizational Psychology (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965), p. 48.

²³Ibid., p. 50.

²⁴Ibid., p. 51.

²⁵Ibid., p. 57.

The fourth assumption of man will be presented near the end of this chapter, as a means of summarizing the theories discussed. The previous three assumptions will be the framework for the theories ahead, and as Schëin put it:

Every manager makes assumptions about people. Whether he is aware of these assumptions or not, they operate as a theory or framework in terms of which he decides to deal with his superiors, peers, or subordinates The kinds of assumptions a manager makes about the nature of people will determine his managerial strategy.²⁶

RENSIS LIKERT

Likert became prominent in the field of behavioral science and motivation, in 1947, as a researcher, and then as the foremost interpreter of the University of Michigan studies.²⁷ In these studies, Likert and his colleagues focused on the attitudes and behavior of first line supervisors, and the resulting effect on the productivity of their subordinates. It was found that departments with supervisors who were primarily production oriented tended on the average to produce less than departments with employee-centered supervisors. This revelation clearly ran opposite to the classical theories that employee-centered supervisors should have ill-disciplined and inefficient groups. The examination as to why the results occurred, showed the differences between the supervisors to be the key factor. Production-centered supervisors tended to be authoritarian, arbitrary, defensive, and

²⁶ Ibid., p.49.

²⁷ Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, p.44.

resistant to influence; they gave detailed supervision on what to do and how to do it; if things were not done correctly, they might even do it themselves. The employee-centered supervisors tended to be cooperative, democratic, amenable to influence, and more reasonable; they gave subordinates a general outline of what was to be done and allowed the workers to decide on the details of getting it done; they assumed that workers were responsible, as indeed turned out to be the case. Further, the production-centered supervisor ignored the social and personal needs of the employees, while the employee-centered supervisor was sensitive to them. It was also learned in these studies that there was considerable evidence that the supervisor's style and assumptions reflected those of his own boss.²⁸ Clearly, the research showed that emphasis on productivity at the expense of worker dignity was self-defeating, and that the differences in productivity had been built up gradually as the supervisor's style and the worker's motivation interacted.²⁹ Confusion entered the studies, when a short run analysis showed that the production-centered approaches attained higher production than employee-centered approaches. However, the researchers found evidence that this short run advantage led to formation of anti-management groups that in the long run clearly hurt the organization.³⁰

²⁸Schein, Organizational Psychology, p.55

²⁹Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, p.36.

³⁰Schein, Organizational Psychology, p. 55.

Likert's explanation for the results of the Michigan studies are most interesting. Rather than criticize management for rational-economic man assumptions, Likert blames management for being entirely too logical, too preoccupied with tangible results, and far too aloof from personalities. In what he initially called a "modified theory of organization," ³¹ Likert pointed to the need for management to take more of an interest in people--that people should be considered as assets in the business, and that damage to their morale or motivation should be prevented like any other material or financial loss.³² Likert expounds on this theory even more dramatically in his latest book The Human Organization, where he describes a human-asset accounting system that allows a company to measure return-on-investment for people.³³

Continuing with his explanation of the Michigan studies, Likert feels that the employee-centered supervisors understood that responsibility for production is inherently the province of workers, not supervisors, and that employees can function in self-disciplining groups which require little or no supervisory pressure. These thoughts

³¹ Rensis I. Likert, "A Motivational Approach to a Modified Theory of Organization and Management," in Modern Organization Theory, ed. by Mason Haire. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959.

³² Ibid.

³³ Rensis I. Likert, The Human Organization (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 10.

regarding the relationship between the superior and the subordinate clearly have become the pivotal variable in all Likert's related concepts.³⁴ Gellerman says:

Likert sees the key to a productivity-motivated work force as a supervisory style which enhances the workers' proprietorship of their jobs He pleads for a positive approach, for delegating control in order to make the satisfaction of self-discipline possible . . . to give them jurisdiction over the fragment of the total enterprise that is under their noses . . .³⁵

Likert made his greatest contributions in his book New Patterns of Management, which was published in 1961. It is in this book, that he presents his "group theory of organization," where the head of the unit deals with employees collectively, and consequently conceives of his responsibility and accountability in terms of the group as a whole. In this theory, he shows the organization as a mosaic of overlapping and interacting groups, with effectiveness determined by the quality of overall communication. The key to this communication, is the "linking-pin," or the individual who is a member of two groups--a superior in one group and a subordinate in the other. Through a good "linking-pin," the policies of management are communicated downward and the needs, goals and feelings of employees are transmitted upward.³⁶ A further theory of Likert that goes hand-in-hand with the "linking-pin" concept is the theory of "interaction-influence." As Likert views it, the amount of productivity a manager

³⁴National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 34.

³⁵Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, p. 46.

³⁶Rensis I. Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961), pp. 112-113.

attains from his group depends on how well he "interacts" with the group, i.e., the extent to which he considers group opinions in his procedural decisions, and how much "influence" he has with his own superiors.³⁷ Just as the "interaction-influence" theory is seen as an integral part of the "overlapping group" and "linking-pin" theories, so is Likert's concept of "supportive-relationships." Likert sees this concept as one of his most important, and calls it a concept of open communication, wherein an individual is made to feel by management that he is a necessary cog in the wheel, and that the organization is genuinely interested in him as an individual. Likert sees the "supportive-relationship" as totally essential to worker motivation.³⁸

This concludes the examination of the first of the selected giants--certainly it can be understood that space does not permit coverage of every contribution--hopefully, the high spots have been satisfactorily relayed. Chapter V, will attempt application of Likert and the next four giants to the real world problems of the Navy.

ABRAHAM MASLOW

In his book, Motivation and Personality, Maslow espouses a theory that man is motivated by his internal desire to satisfy various levels of human needs. Maslow chose to categorize and rank these needs in a conceptual hierarchy beginning with the most primitive and urgent, and ranging upward to an apex of higher needs.³⁹ Maslow identified

³⁷Ibid., pp. 178-191.

³⁸Ibid., p. 207.

³⁹National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 17.

this breakdown as his "Hierarchy of Needs":

1. Physiological needs
2. Safety needs
3. Need for belongingness and love (affiliation)
4. Need for esteem
5. Need for self-actualization.⁴⁰

This hierarchy of need concept is a widely used basis for much of the motivational "snake oil" on the market today. Maslow best explains his purpose for bringing order and unity to a span of thought that has become so very important to the subject of motivation:

My classification of basic needs is in part an attempt to account for unity behind the apparent diversity among men, and from culture to culture. No claim is made that it is ultimate or universal. The claim is made, however, that it is more ultimate, more universal, more basic . . . and makes a closer approach to human characteristics.⁴¹

A more detailed look at the hierarchy seems appropriate at this point. The following discussion will begin with the lower level physiological needs, and proceed to the higher order needs of self-actualization. Accompanying the discussion of each level will be a graphic portrayal which emphasizes the idea that a need is dominant, and a motivator until it is satisfied, at which time the next level need becomes the motivator of behavior.⁴²

⁴⁰Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, Inc., 1954), pp.80-92.

⁴¹Ibid., p.102.

⁴²The thought of this paragraph, and Figures 3-7 are taken from Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969), pp.20-29.

Priorities Explained

Physiological Needs

As a starting point for motivation theory in application, Maslow insists that all physiological needs must be answered. If a man does not have air to breathe, or bread to eat, it is likely that any motivators influencing him would answer his physical needs rather than any needs of a higher level.⁴³ Once these physiological needs are fulfilled (satisfied), however, Maslow describes how man is ready to move to the second and subsequent levels in the need hierarchy:

The physiological needs, when gratified, cease to exist as active determinants of organizers of behavior. They now exist only in a potential fashion in the sense that they may emerge again to dominate the organism if they are thwarted. A want that is satisfied is no longer a want. Behavior is dominated only by unsatisfied needs. If hunger is satisfied it becomes unimportant in the current dynamics of an individual.

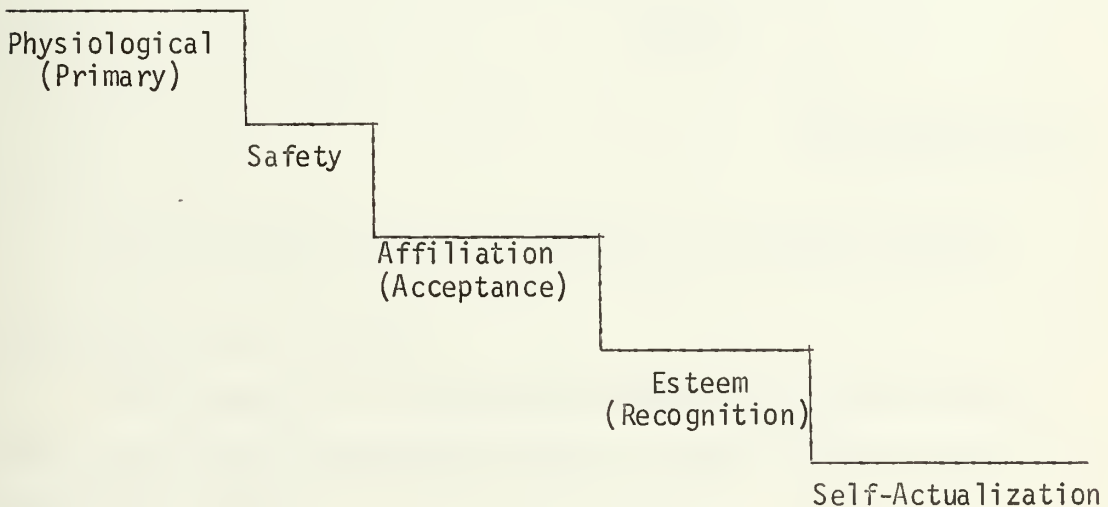


Fig. 3.--Hierarchy of Needs--Physiological Dominant

⁴³Ibid., p. 103.

As soon as physiological needs are satisfied, safety needs will rise to be dominant. The hierarchy will now look as represented in Figure 4.

Safety Needs

The safety needs include actual physical safety, as well as a feeling of being safe from injury both physical and emotional; therefore, a feeling of emotional security as well as a feeling of freedom from illness would be included in this category.⁴⁴

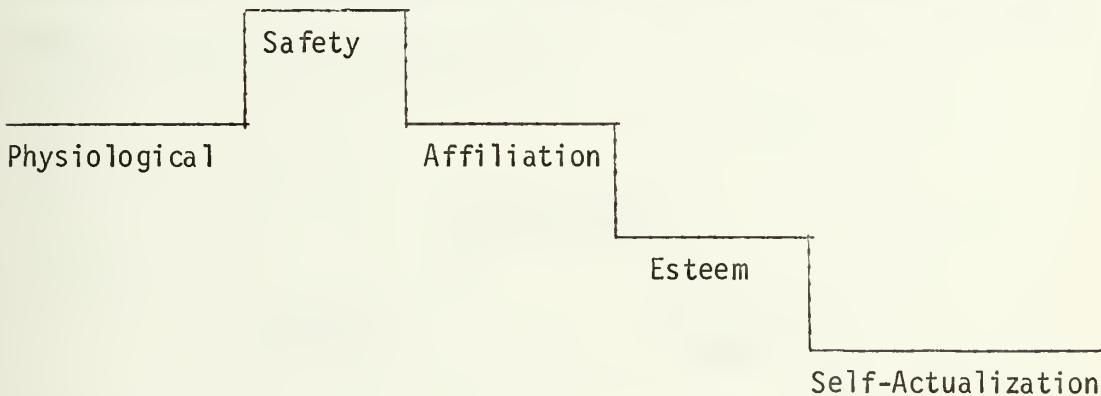


Fig. 4.--Safety need when dominant in the need structure

Belongingness and Love Needs

Also known as the recognition needs or affiliation needs, this set of human requirements serves as a basic reason for the

⁴⁴National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 18.

existence of organizations in society. Realizing that most of man's actions occur in groups, such as the family and the work group, these needs, if properly accommodated, satisfy an individual's desire to be liked, to be accepted, to be loved. Friends and family, and the approval of fellow man, become most important. To be without love, understanding, and approval would be felt most keenly. It should be added here that love, as used in the context of Maslow's hierarchy, is not synonymous with sex. Sexual behavior is probably multi-determined, and is a function of several of the hierarchial levels. In simplest terms it may be considered, however, like hunger or the need to sleep, in physiological terms.⁴⁵ Summarized, this category represents a need for other people.⁴⁶

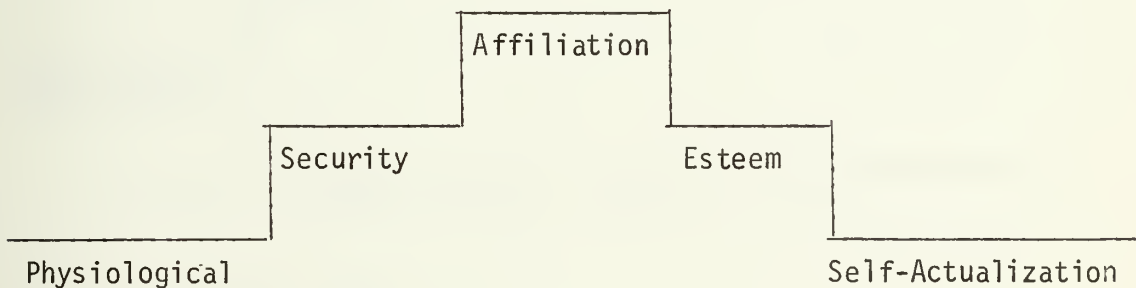


Fig. 5.--Affiliation need when dominant in the need structure

⁴⁵Bernard Berelson and Gary A. Steiner, Human Behavior (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964), p. 49.

⁴⁶National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 17.

Esteem Needs

The need for esteem is based on the belief that a person has a basic need for self respect and the esteem of others. Maslow further describes this need as:

. . . the desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery and competence, for confidence in the fact of the world, and for independence and freedom. Then there is the desire for reputation or prestige, status, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, and appreciation.⁴⁷

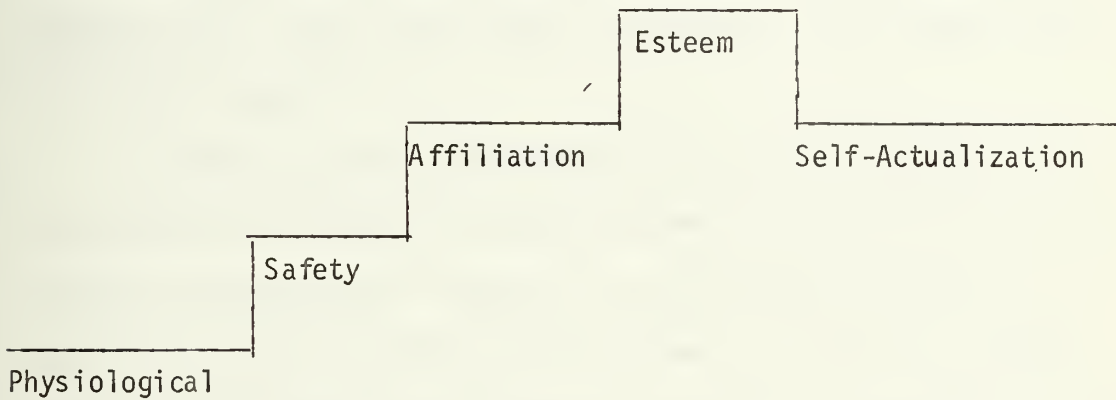


Fig. 6.-- Esteem need when dominant in the need structure

Self-Actualization Needs

This need is difficult to describe. Self-actualization is the process whereby one realizes the real self by becoming what one is capable of becoming. In other words, self-actualization is the process

⁴⁷Maslow, Motivation and Personality, p. 90.

of making actual the individual's perception of his "self."⁴⁸ For example, it is not unusual to see a successful and accomplished individual start anew, delve into the unknown, or strive for the impossible. Unless a man is doing what he is capable of doing, or being what he wants to be, "doing his own thing" in contemporary terminology, a part of his complete make-up is missing and is not satisfied. Maslow considered this the pinnacle of human aspirations, at the top of the hierarchy, and said that: "A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately happy. What a man can be, he must be. This need we call self-actualization."⁴⁹

Through the eyes of management it is easily seen that self-actualization is the need for workers (some at least, if not all) to push and prod themselves continually as the need may dictate, to reach higher and never-quite-arrived at goals. But why, it may be asked, are some people quite content to remain in place, never advancing beyond a certain established level of achievement? The answer lies in the fact that people are different, and that their range of motives, while certainly alike in conforming to the hierarchial need pattern, is sufficiently different to permit satisfaction at varying levels.⁵⁰

⁴⁸National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 18.

⁴⁹Maslow, Motivation and Personality, p. 91.

⁵⁰Ibid. p. 92.

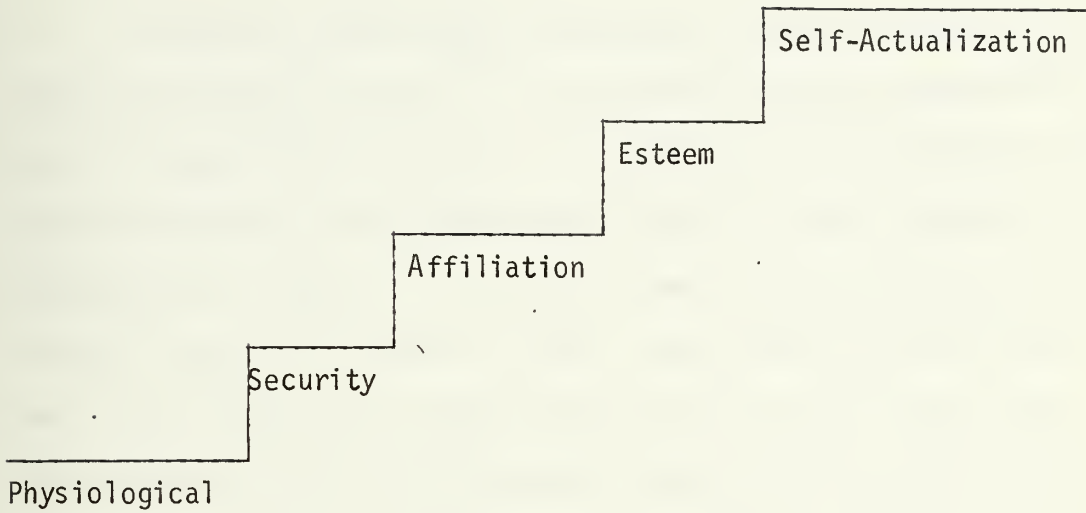


Fig. 7.-- Self-actualization when dominant in the need structure

It must be added, however, that even the individual capable of seeking self-actualization, rarely becomes "self-actualized," for as Maslow contends: "By its very essence, self-actualization is a self-perpetuating, ongoing process. It implies that each new process begets further involvement. Therefore a person is never self-actualized."⁵¹

The managerial strategy, if one accepts Maslow's theory, changes drastically. The strategy appears to take on less concern for being considerate and friendly, and more concern for making the work more challenging and meaningful. It encompasses giving people more autonomy and responsibility, and moving them along in terms of recognition or advancement for positive achievements on the job.⁵²

⁵¹Ibid., p. 93.

⁵²Massie, Essential of Management, p. 151.

FREDERICK HERZBERG

Herzberg is best known in behavioral science circles for his "motivation-hygiene" theory.⁵³ This theory grew out of research on job attitudes of 200 accountants and engineers in the Pittsburgh area, and has been tested over time through a total of 1685 interviews throughout the country.⁵⁴ These interviews essentially asked individuals to recall specific incidents in their recent experience which made them feel either particularly good or particularly bad about their jobs. They were also asked to indicate what effects these incidents had on their attitudes, and their following job performance.⁵⁵ Prior to an analysis of the results of these interviews, it is important to understand Herzberg's reasons for studying job attitudes in the first place:

To industry, the payoff for a study of job attitudes would be increased productivity, decreased turnover, decreased absenteeism, and smoother working relations To the individual an understanding of the forces that lead to improved morale would bring greater happiness and greater self-realization.⁵⁶

The results of the study showed that when individuals felt good about their jobs, it was usually because something had happened which showed

⁵³National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 20.

⁵⁴Herzberg, "One More Time," p. 39.

⁵⁵Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, Barbara Snyderman, The Motivation To Work (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959), p. 141.

⁵⁶Ibid., p. ix.

they were doing their work particularly well, or that they were becoming more expert in their professions. Good feelings were, in other words, keyed to the specific tasks that the men performed, rather than to background factors such as money, security or working conditions. On the other hand, when the individuals felt bad it was usually due to some disturbance relative to a background factor, that caused them to feel they were receiving unfair treatment.⁵⁷ Another way of stating these results is that:

. . . subjects most often mentioned job experiences or factors related to a good feeling in terms of job content. These were categorized as content factors. Factors or experiences mentioned in connection with a bad feeling about the job were most often related to the surrounding or peripheral aspects of the job, and they were called context factors.⁵⁸

Herzberg called the job content factors satisfiers or motivators, and the job context factors dissatisfiers or hygies.⁵⁹ The motivators that Herzberg identified were:

- (1) Achievement
- (2) Recognition
- (3) Work content
- (4) Responsibility
- (5) Advancement
- (6) Growth.⁶⁰

He categorized the hygies as:

⁵⁷ Ibid., pp. 57-96.

⁵⁸ National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 20.

⁵⁹ Herzberg, The Motivation to Work, p. 113.

⁶⁰ National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 20.

- (1) Company and policy administration
- (2) Supervision
- (3) Working conditions
- (4) Interpersonal relations
- (5) Salary
- (6) Status
- (7) Job security
- (8) Personal life.⁶¹

Herzberg uses these two distinct categories (motivators and hygienes) because he found that rarely were the same kinds of factors named in connection with both good and bad work experiences. His findings suggest that factors involved in producing job satisfaction (and motivation) are separate and distinct from factors that lead to job dissatisfaction. He further concluded that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not polar extremes on a continuum, rather that the opposite of job satisfaction is no job satisfaction, and the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction.⁶² An analogy clarifies this point: "One cannot find happiness by avoiding pain, nor can one avoid pain by finding happiness . . . "⁶³

Herzberg's theory continues by stating that only the motivators can cause an uplifting effect on attitudes or performance, and that

⁶¹Ibid., p. 21.

⁶²Herzberg, "One More Time," p. 56.

⁶³National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 24.

hygienic factors produce no improvements, but rather serve to prevent losses of morale and efficiency.⁶⁴ In other words, hygienes are prerequisites for effective motivation but are powerless to motivate by themselves--they can only build a floor under motivation. To Herzberg, it was clear that the real motivators were opportunities to become more expert, and to handle more demanding assignments. Herzberg contends that it makes no sense, therefore, to think of motivation in terms of increased pay, or some other environmental improvement. In effect, Herzberg challenged the motivational worth of the traditional bread-and-butter, as well as the more sophisticated human relations school motivators. Herzberg's theory points to freedom for the employee to exercise initiative and ingenuity, to experiment, and to handle problems of their jobs as they see fit. This control, he says, leads to positive job feelings, and results in more creativity, more production and a greater desire for excellence.⁶⁵ Clearly, there is a connection with Maslow in this theory. Herzberg's hygienes compare with Maslow's lower level needs, and the motivators, or the growth needs tie directly to Maslow's self-actualization.⁶⁶ To re-emphasize the point, Herzberg says that hygienes, like Maslow's lower needs must

⁶⁴ Herzberg, The Motivation to Work, p. 114.

⁶⁵ Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, pp. 50-51.

⁶⁶ National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 22.

be satisfied if a person is to rise above to self-actualization; but, that the key to real motivation is to promote a methodology that allows an individual to work toward self-actualization.⁶⁷ Gellerman concludes that this is the real key to Herzberg's theory, i.e., that since a man never reaches self-actualization (he is rarely satisfied with himself), he will always be in a state of perpetual discontent--a state that will allow Herzberg's "motivators" to actually motivate him. To Gellerman, it is precisely this quirk of always wanting something else, that results in industrial progress through motivation.⁶⁸ Since Herzberg considers that the western industrial society has already been credited with the lower ranks of the need hierarchy (hygienes), his charge to management is:

. . . to recognize the disparate nature of hygiene and motivators, and to build more real motivating factors into the system if management hopes even to maintain current levels of productivity let alone maximize it.⁶⁹

Herzberg's continuing theme for a motivated work force is job enrichment, or as he calls it vertical loading. He differentiates between job enrichment and job enlargement (horizontal loading):

Job enrichment increases the challenging content of the job . . . causes the employee to grow both in skill and feeling of accomplishment Job enrichment provides the opportunity for psychological growth, while job enlargement merely makes the job structurally bigger.⁷⁰

⁶⁷Ibid., p. 23.

⁶⁸Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, p. 53.

⁶⁹National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 24.

⁷⁰Herzberg, "One More Time," p. 41.

His steps to accomplishing job enrichment follow:

1. Select those jobs in which (a) the investment in industrial engineering does not make changes too costly, (b) attitudes are poor, (c) hygiene is becoming very costly, and (d) motivation will make a difference in performance.
2. Approach these jobs with the conviction that they can be changed. Years of tradition have led managers to believe that the content of the jobs is sacrosanct and the only scope of action that they have is in ways of stimulating people.
3. Brainstorm a list of changes that may enrich the jobs, without concern for their practicality.
4. Screen the list to eliminate suggestions that involve hygiene, rather than actual motivation.
5. Screen the list for generalities, such as "give them more responsibility," that are rarely followed in practice. This might seem obvious, but the motivator words have never left industry; the substance has just been rationalized and organized out. Words like "responsibility," "growth," "achievement," and "challenge," for example, have been elevated to the lyrics of the patriotic anthem for all organizations. It is the old problem typified by the pledge of allegiance to the flag being more important than contributions to the country--of following the form, rather than the substance.
6. Screen the list to eliminate any horizontal loading suggestions.
7. Avoid direct participation by the employees whose jobs are to be enriched. Ideas they have expressed previously certainly constitute a valuable source for recommended changes, but their direct involvement contaminates the process with human relations hygiene and, more specifically, gives them only a sense of making a contribution. The job is to be changed, and it is the content that will produce the motivation, not attitudes about being involved or the challenge inherent in setting up a job. That process will be over shortly, and it is what the employees will be doing from then on that will determine their motivation. A sense of participation will result only in short-term movement.
8. In the initial attempts at job enrichment, set up a controlled experiment. At least two equivalent groups should be chosen, one an experimental unit in which the motivators are systematically introduced over a period of time, and the other one a control group in which no changes are made. For both groups, hygiene should be allowed to follow its natural course for the duration of the experiment. Pre- and post-installation tests of performance and job attitudes are necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of the job enrichment program. The attitude test must be limited to motivator items in order to divorce the employee's view of the job he is given from all the surrounding hygiene feelings that he might have.

9. Be prepared for a drop in performance in the experimental group the first few weeks. The changeover to a new job may lead to a temporary reduction in efficiency.

10. Expect your first-line supervisors to experience some anxiety and hostility over the changes you are making. The anxiety comes from their fear that the changes will result in poorer performance for their unit. Hostility will arise when the employees start assuming what the supervisors regard as their own responsibility for performance. The supervisor without checking duties to perform may then be left with little to do.

After a successful experiment, however, the supervisor usually discovers the supervisory and managerial functions he has neglected, or which were never his because all his time was given over to checking the work of his subordinates. For example, in the R&D division of one large chemical company I know of, the supervisors of the laboratory assistants were theoretically responsible for their training and evaluation. These functions, however, had come to be performed in a routine, unsubstantial fashion. After the job enrichment program, during which the supervisors were not merely passive observers of the assistants' performance, the supervisors actually were devoting their time to reviewing performance and administering thorough training.

What has been called an employee-centered style of supervision will come about not through education of supervisors, but by changing the jobs that they do.⁷¹

Finally as Herzberg points out:

Not all jobs can be enriched, nor do all jobs need to be enriched. If only a small percentage of the time and money that is now devoted to hygiene, however, were given to job enrichment efforts, the return in human satisfaction and economic gain would be one of the largest dividends that industry and society have ever reaped through their efforts at better personnel management.

The argument for job enrichment can be summed up quite simply: if you have someone on a job, use him. If you can't use him on the job, get rid of him, either via automation or by selecting someone with lesser ability. If you can't use him and you can't get rid of him, you will have a motivation problem.⁷²

⁷¹Ibid., pp. 43-44.

⁷²Ibid., p. 44.

Certainly, Herzberg and his ideas have shaken the literature of motivational theory, and attacks have come from all directions.⁷³

However, his most recent book, Work and the Nature of Man, seems to defend his work most admirably.⁷⁴ While he will most likely forever remain controversial, his theories are steadily gaining favor in the business world.⁷⁵

CHRIS ARGYRIS

The theme of Argyris's research and writings, is the dichotomy of individual needs and organizational needs. His goal, is the integration of these needs and the subsequent attainment of a highly motivated work force.⁷⁶

Argyris not only feels that organizations can frustrate human beings in realization of their needs, but that they may, in fact, be the source and cause of human problems. In his first book, Personality and Organization, Argyris shows that if the goals of the average formal organization are to be realized, the individual will be working in a situation where he is expected to be dependent, subordinate, passive and ineffectually utilized. He further indicated that these particular characteristics of the human animal, attempting to co-exist

⁷³National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p.25.

⁷⁴For a summary of later research, further elaboration of the "motivation-hygiene" theory, and a defense of the research, see Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (Cleveland: World Publishing Company, 1966).

⁷⁵National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 25.

⁷⁶Ibid., p. 26

within the organizational system, are incongruent to normal healthy desires, and that the cleavage between the employee and the organization becomes greater as one goes down the structured chain of command, as directive leadership increases, as jobs become more specialized, and as management controls are increased.

Results of this incongruency are frustration, failure, short time perspective, and conflict. The employee will attempt to adapt to these conditions by leaving the organization, manifesting various defense reactions, becoming apathetic, or by joining informal groups that sanction the behavioristic adaptations. To make matters worse, Argyris's research shows that management's initial reactions to this situation usually reinforce the very conditions that created the adverse behavior, i.e., increased directive leadership, increased management controls, and increased "pseudo" human relations programs.⁷⁷ At this point, Argyris says that the "psychological energy" of the individual is working in direct opposition to the overall goals of the organization, and that the organization is "unhealthy."⁷⁸

Considering that controls and a well-defined organizational structure are part of most every successful business operation, the question arises as to whether the frustrations, that Argyris describes,

⁷⁷Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, Inc., 1957), pp. 1-149.

⁷⁸Chris Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964), pp. 20-23.

are just an inevitable part of the price that must be paid for a technologically advanced society. Argyris's answer is that organizations must gradually shift from existing systems to more flexible and participative methods--that the ideal organization is not only one which is flexible enough to shift power downward or upward, as the occasion requires, but one in which the entire organization assesses its problems and selects the power distribution that seems most appropriate.⁷⁹ In other words, the organization can meet the needs of the workers through versatility in operating styles. Argyris does not recommend a complete rejection of the traditional organizational structures, rather he proposes:

. . . that the "one man-one boss" method of management be discarded, in some instances, to create ad hoc work groups that cut across formal organization lines and bring together people with a collection of appropriate skills to tackle a given job. This concept is akin to the "project management" approach to organization or the "free floating task group" concept in which authority floats with expertise⁸⁰

Argyris feels that the above concept allows open communication, mutual understanding of functions and permits internal flexibility and freedom. The key is the development of interpersonal competence and authenticity in relationships between management and workers, which leads to the equalization and distribution of power and influence--so critical in organizational success. This idea of a decentralized, organization

⁷⁹Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, p. 81.

⁸⁰National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, pp. 29-30.

with employee-centered leadership, is the basis of the Argyris "mix model" for motivation.⁸¹

DOUGLAS MCGREGOR

Douglas McGregor occupies a preeminent place among behavioral scientists who have had influence on the business community The Human Side of Enterprise, has probably been read by more businessmen, and has influenced them more; than any other book in its field.⁸²

Douglas McGregor championed the point of view that management philosophies have a pronounced effect on employee motivation at all levels, and was convinced that most of these philosophies buck against human nature itself. As he saw the situation in industry, the fault lies with erroneous, and practically unexamined assumptions about the nature of man--assumptions that are implicit in most management policies.⁸³ Therefore, McGregor's work, which, like Maslow's, relates motivation to needs, challenged the traditional view of direction and control, with a new theory based on the integration of individual and organizational goals.⁸⁴ This traditional and extremely pervasive view, McGregor called Theory X:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike for work, and will avoid it if he can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

⁸¹Argyris, Integrating, pp. 146-191.

⁸²National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p.11.

⁸³Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, pp. 84-85.

⁸⁴Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), pp.45-59.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all.⁸⁵

Gellerman's interpretation on Theory X is most interesting:

There are three cornerstones of Theory X: One is that most people just don't like to work, the second is that a club has to be held over their heads . . . and the third is that the ordinary mortal would rather be told . . . than have to think The world, in other words, is supposed to be full of peons, and managing them is largely a matter of vigilance, catering to their security needs . . . and keeping the implied threat of unemployment handy⁸⁶

McGregor stresses that while this set of assumptions is obsolete, it is nonetheless widespread through the policies and controls of American industrial management. While he recognized the prevalence of plenty of production restrictions, and other slow-to-move groups, his research indicates that these types exist as a consequence of Theory X management.⁸⁷ According to McGregor, the factors underlying motivation and the evidence of motivated productivity are ignored in Theory X:

The "carrot and stick" theory of motivation which goes along with Theory X works well under certain circumstances. The means for satisfying man's physiological and safety needs can be provided or withheld by management By these means the individual can be controlled so long as he is struggling for subsistence. Man tends to live for bread alone when there is little bread But the "carrot and stick" theory does not work at all once man has reached an adequate subsistence level and is motivated primarily by higher needs.⁸⁸

⁸⁵ Ibid., pp. 33-34.

⁸⁶ Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, p. 86.

⁸⁷ McGregor, The Human Side, p. 42.

⁸⁸ Ibid., p. 41.

McGregor went on to conclude that management must provide a means or create a climate that will enable the worker to seek these higher needs--needs of self-fulfillment--needs of self-actualization. He also added that the means or climate must be integrated into the overall goals of the organization.⁸⁹

To answer this problem of integration, McGregor proposed a new set of assumptions he called Theory Y:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, e.g., the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs, can be direct products of effort directed toward organizational objectives.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.⁹⁰

According to McGregor, the "contract" between employer and employee, which pays to assert control, goes against the grain of most individuals, and sets the stage for conflict and waste on both sides. McGregor asserts that people are more highly motivated without controls than they could be with them. His plea, however, is not for an unregulated

⁸⁹Ibid.

⁹⁰Ibid., pp. 47-48.

work force, but for a self-regulating one. In effect, he sees this self-regulation leading to, and accomplishing self-actualization.⁹¹

Theory Y then becomes an invitation to innovation.⁹² Perhaps

Gellerman best interprets this idea of innovation:

You design your organization such that it is propelled by motivation rather than using your organization to suppress that motivation . . . you seek commitment by setting up the possibility of financial gain coupled with the probability of personal growth The real task of Theory Y management is to make the job the stage on which enlargement of competence, self-control and a sense of accomplishment can occur . . . and a powerful motivating potential is yours.⁹³

Gellerman continues along this vein:

If you pay a man for broadening his horizons and strengthening his mastery of his world, he is likely to identify his goals with yours . . . because you tailor a part of your business to suit him⁹⁴

Getting there, McGregor admitted, is no easy task, and has to evolve from a change at the top--a change that includes a complete interaction between supervisor and subordinates--weighing, evaluating, and projecting. It does not include consensus decision making, because the leader cannot avoid ultimate responsibility; but it does include mutual trust, a great deal of faith, and most importantly, it includes:

the ability of management to convey an attitude of helpfulness rather than dominance, guidance rather than control . . . it all filters downward, gradually dismantling some of the fences

⁹¹Ibid., pp. 55-56.

⁹²Ibid., p. 57.

⁹³Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, p. 89.

⁹⁴Ibid.

that people erect to defend their egos from each other. Slowly the potentialities which Theory X denies and Theory Y affirms will begin to assert themselves. This at least is Doug McGregor's faith . . . and a great many of today's most serious students of motivation agree with him.⁹⁵

In the preview to this section of Chapter III, use was made of Schein's first three assumptions of man, as a framework for hanging the theories of the giants. Now, it seems appropriate to provide Schein's fourth assumption, as a means of channeling these theories toward a logical managerial strategy. In Schein's words:

. . . the major impact of many decades of research has been to vastly complicate our models of man, of organizations, and of managerial strategies. Man is a more complex individual than the rational-economic, social or self-actualization man.⁹⁶

The following are Schein's assumptions of the complex man:

1. Man is not only complex, but also highly variable; he has many motives which are arranged in some sort of hierarchy of importance to him, but this hierarchy is subject to change from time to time and situation to situation; furthermore, motives interact and combine into complex motive patterns (for example, since money can facilitate self-actualization, for some people economic strivings are equivalent to self-actualization.
2. Man is capable of learning new motives through his organizational experiences, hence ultimately his pattern of motivation and the psychological contract which he establishes with the organization is the result of a complex interaction between initial needs and organizational experiences.
3. Man's motives in different organizations or different sub-parts of the same organization may be different; the person who is alienated in the formal organization may find fulfillment of his social and self-actualization needs in the union or in the informal organization; if the job itself is complex, such as that of a manager, some parts of the job may engage some motives while other parts engage other motives.

⁹⁵Ibid., p. 92.

⁹⁶Schein, Organizational Psychology, p. 60.

4. Man can become productively involved with organizations on the basis of many different kinds of motives; his ultimate satisfaction and the ultimate effectiveness of the organization depends only in part on the nature of his motivation. The nature of the task to be performed, the abilities and experience of the person on the job, and the nature of the other people in the organization all interact to produce a certain pattern of work and feelings. For example, a highly skilled but poorly motivated worker may be as effective and satisfied as a very unskilled but highly motivated worker.

5. Man can respond to many different kinds of managerial strategies, depending on his own motives and abilities and the nature of the task; in other words, there is no one correct managerial strategy that will work for all men at all times.⁹⁷

Perhaps the most important implications for a managerial strategy from these assumptions is that the successful motivator "must be a good diagnostician and must value a spirit of inquiry."⁹⁸ Through these qualities, he will then be able to draw upon the literature of the giants, to meet the demands of the situation:

He may be highly directive at one time and with one employee but very nondirective at another time and with another employee. He may use pure engineering criteria in the design of some jobs, but let a worker group completely design another set of jobs. In other words, he will be flexible . . . ⁹⁹

⁹⁷Ibid.

⁹⁸Ibid., p. 61.

⁹⁹Ibid.

CHAPTER IV

MOTIVATIONAL PHILOSOPHY AND TOOLS

The purpose of this chapter is to identify the basic philosophy of the United States Civil Service Commission regarding motivation of federal employees, and to relate these philosophies to actual tools that are available for use by Government departments and agencies. Specifically, this chapter will answer the second subsidiary question of this thesis: "What is the present federal motivational philosophy, and what motivational tools are available to the Navy manager?"

THE SEARCH

The search, by this author for a general, overriding federal motivational philosophy started at the U.S. Civil Service Commission, which by the very nature of its charter, is responsible for providing guidance to all federal agencies and departments relative to personnel management policies. As might be expected, a library and directory search located no individual, bureau or documentation that represented overall responsibility for motivational policy. Like its definition, as discussed in Chapter II, motivation seemed to be an intangible subject, within the Civil Service Commission. However, just as frustration was about to prove victorious, this author was referred to a Mr. John D. Roth, former Director of Incentive Systems, U. S. Civil Service Commission.

During a brief discussion with Mr. Roth, it was confirmed that there is no official, written philosophy for motivation of federal employees; however, Mr. Roth did provide what he considers to be an unwritten policy base. As he elaborated:

If someone were to ask our Director what the Commission's philosophy was on motivation, I'm sure he would say it is first, the responsibility of agency management to motivate through good leadership and good managerial practices, and second, he would point to the Incentive Awards Program.¹

Roth then explained that the Incentive Awards Program provides cash, or some type of honorary award for beneficial suggestions, and for special employee achievement or sustained superior performance. He further stated his opinion that this program if managed properly, could cover the bulk of all Federal motivational requirements. Roth supports this contention by an explanation of how awards relate to satisfaction of a hierarchy of individual needs.² Roth feels that the cash award contributes to some extent to meeting physiological and safety needs, but since these needs are already primarily met by the regular wage plan, that cash alone is not the most important element of the award. Roth believes that the award ceremony, and the recognition of a superior product go a long way toward satisfaction

¹John D. Roth, interview held in Washington, D.C. on February 14, 1972.

²Although Roth mentioned this subject during the interview, the text commentary was taken from his article listed in the next footnote.

of an individual's social and ego needs. Finally, he sees the award system as making a positive contribution to the high order needs of self-fulfillment, by providing an organized system wherein the employee is encouraged to utilize creative talents, initiative, and drive beyond the immediate requirements of his job.³ Unfortunately, the interview with Roth was far too short; however, a significant conclusion was reached: although there is no official, written philosophy, the Civil Service Commission hopes for motivation in the government through management responsibility, and its only formal tool of implementation--the Incentive Awards Program.

Prior to discussing the management responsibility aspect of this conclusion, it must be admitted, that there are many who highly favor, and have great faith in the potential of an incentive system. Roth in another of his articles for the Commission said:

Motivation is stronger when the work can be made more meaningful--when it is interesting--when it provides challenge and responsibility--when it offers opportunity for pride in achievement, for growth, for distinction, and for recognition. For the employee who has had little opportunity for challenging work and perhaps less opportunity for growth, the need to be recognized for superior efforts is very important. Even scientists, managers, and others who find great satisfaction and reward in their work desire recognition and acclaim for achievements that are substantially beyond that expected of them.⁴

³John D. Roth, "How Awards Relate to Behavioral Science," Civil Service Journal, IV, No. 4 (April-June, 1964), pp.18-19.

⁴John D. Roth, "More Than The Job Requires," Civil Service Journal, IX, No. 4 (April-June, 1969), pp. 8-9.

John Macy, is another writer who supports Roth, and the incentive philosophy.⁵ Macy believes that most people near the top of the Federal organizational hierarchy quite often find sufficient satisfaction of basic needs from the nature of their jobs, but that the vast bulk of the civilian work force, because of lesser responsibilities, fewer opportunities for high achievement, and lower prospects for career advancement, are quite concerned with recognition. Macy believes that these individuals are motivated by a program that will give them special credit when they perform beyond the contribution of their peers.⁶

During the previously discussed interview with John Roth of the Civil Service Commission, it was shown that the informal Federal motivational philosophy was a combination of management responsibility and incentive awards. While the past paragraph has been devoted to the incentive program, it is important to include that the Incentive Award Program pamphlet directly emphasizes the vital role of the supervisor (management). In summary, the pamphlet states that a supervisor's job success depends to a large extent upon the results he gets through his people. By demonstrating that he wants ideas for improving operations, by enthusiastically encouraging constructive thinking on the part of the employees, by helping to get good suggestions adopted, and by recommending awards for good suggestions and superior accomplishment, the supervisor can gain both the

⁵ Macy is a former director of the Civil Service Commission.

⁶ John W. Macy, "A Cost-Conscious Work Force," Cost Reduction Journal, (Winter, 1966-67), pp.20-22

respect and confidence of his workers.⁷ In other words, he can motivate them, and at the same time reap the benefits that result from more efficient operations, reduced waste, increased production, and better morale.⁸

As a final test of the newly discovered, but strictly informal philosophy, the author called on the current Director of Incentive Systems, Mr. Richard Brengel. Brengel, an impressive representative of the commission, essentially agreed with Roth's opinion on the subject philosophy; however, Brengel placed even more emphasis on managerial responsibility, and added insight to the Commission goals of establishing strong supervisory training programs replete with the latest findings on motivation and behavioral science.⁹

The next section of this chapter will focus on the one concrete tool available to Federal agencies and departments.

INCENTIVE AWARDS AND THE NAVY

The Navy Department's Incentive Awards Program was authorized under the provision of the Government Employees' Incentive Awards Act of November 30, 1954. This act is officially identified as Title III

⁷U. S. Civil Service Commission pamphlet, "The Incentive Awards Program," Federal Employees Facts No. 1, May, 1969. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.

⁸Ibid.

⁹Richard Brengel, interview held in Washington, D.C. on February 14, 1972.

of Public Law 763, 83rd Congress.¹⁰ The law superceded numerous existing incentive programs, which according to a congressional sub-committee, had become lethargic due to divided responsibility and lack of managerial interest.¹¹ The new act, charged the Civil Service Commission with total Federal responsibility for administration of the authorized Incentive Awards Program. This law, in effect, was the first recognition of the need for a motivational program for the Federal Government.

In view of the dissimilarities among governmental agencies and departments, the Civil Service Commission set forth the following guidelines for implementation of the law, and since the Navy, as well as other agency programs are tailored around these guidelines, it is considered appropriate to list them:

1. Suggestion programs must serve as an aid to management, suitable to the needs of the mission, organization and employees of the agency. The primary objectives are to encourage employee participation through use of the motivational theory of incentives, and thereby improve agency operations.
2. Authority to grant recognition and awards should be delegated to lower echelons consistent with their authority in other management areas.
3. Evaluation of suggestions, and achievement should be done expeditiously.
4. Employee suggestions should be considered for application throughout the entire Federal Government.
5. Awards granted should be considered in selection of employees for promotion.

¹⁰U. S. Congress, House of Representatives, Subcommittee on Manpower and Civil Service, Report Covering the Effectiveness of Implementation of the Government Employees' Incentive Awards Act, on House Report No. 885, 90th Congress, 1st Session, 1967, p. 1.

¹¹Bernard Rosen, "Stretching the Tax Dollar Through a Suggestion Program," Public Personnel Review, July, 1957, XVIII, No. 3, p. 168.

6. Top management should emphasize to supervisors their role in encouraging maximum employee participation.
7. Effective promotion and publicity should be used to obtain maximum employee participation.¹²

Thus, the awards program theory, was designed to motivate employees to do a better job, by providing them with an incentive, which would result in a situation very close to Pareto optimality, i.e., everybody wins--the government gets higher production, and the employee gets a need satisfying award. As Roth stated it:

The awards program in government is an expression of public policy to recognize those employees who achieve more than their jobs require, who dedicate extra thinking to making improvements, and who in doing so demonstrate an exemplary commitment to the goals of their agencies.¹³

So, this is the basis for the Navy Incentive Awards Program--a public law, Civil Service Commission guidelines and motivation based on incentives.

The Navy Department's Office of Civilian Manpower Management (OCMM) has been delegated by the Secretary of the Navy, the responsibility for administration of the Navy program.¹⁴ However, the bulk of the program is administered at operational command levels through utilization of authorized local awards committees. The local committee, monitors specific command instructions relative to program procedures; monitors the operations of awards program; stimulates participation; reviews contested decisions; selects nominees for competitive and honorary awards; assures coordination of the incentive program with other activity

¹²Ibid., pp. 168-169.

¹³Roth, "More Than the Job Requires," p. 9.

¹⁴Department of the Navy, Office of Civilian Manpower Management Instruction 12000.1, Change 32, para 2-16(2)(a), September 12, 1969.

programs; reviews and makes recommendations on awards in excess of authorization delegated to line evaluators; and finally performs other policy and program functions to effect efficient and effective operations.¹⁵

A look at an operational level Incentive Awards Program based on the actual command directive seems a logical way to discuss the specifics of the Navy program. The instruction used, governs the program of the Navy logistical activity, ASO Philadelphia, which was selected for the field study in Chapter V. The instruction is summarized as follows:

By definition, the Incentive Awards Program may provide monetary and/or honorary awards for all civilian employees, both supervisory and non-supervisory. These awards may be granted to an individual employee or to a group of employees for contributions which are either:(1) outside job responsibilities, or (2) within job responsibilities, provided the contribution is so superior that it warrants special recognition. These awards are designed to provide official recognition to deserving employees for contributions, such as: the suggestion of a constructive idea, a useful invention, a special achievement or other personal effort that exceeds normal position requirements. To be eligible an award, an employee contribution must be responsible for effecting efficiency, economy or other improvement in the operation of the government, or be an act or service in the

¹⁵OCMM Instr. 12000-1, para. 451.1e (4), September 12, 1969.

public interest. Regarding specific responsibilities, each command will appoint an Incentive Awards committee whose duties were discussed previously in this section. Each command will also designate an evaluator and a suggestion administrator, whose combined duties are to receive, investigate and approve or disapprove awards amounting to 200 dollars and less. Administrators are responsible to ensure timely processing, and are to provide a monthly statistical report to the joint command personnel office. Finally, and possibly most important of all, the following responsibilities are assigned to line supervisors: (1) initiate award recommendations, review suggestions, provide comments and forward to suggestion administrator; (2) encourage employee participation; (3) motivate employees to improve performance and identify those whose superior accomplishments merit recognition. Clearly, the real responsibility for attaining the intentions of the program appear to fall on the backs of the line supervisor.¹⁶

The preceding summary illustrates how a local Navy command administers the Incentive Awards Program. Chapter V of this study, will investigate, at the same local command, just how successful the program is relative to its unwritten objective of motivation. However, before getting into the details of the actual field study, it is worthwhile considering other expert opinions of incentive awards as a motivational tool. Nicholas J. Oganovic, former Director of the Civil Service Commission stated:

¹⁶Department of the Navy, Naval Forms and Publications Center Joint Instruction 12451. 1B, paragraph summary, September 1, 1970.

Traditionally, promotions and pay raises are used to recognize superior work. Within the Federal Government, the Incentive Awards Program provides an additional means to assist managers. It should be used as a motivational device to support management's goals and objectives; however, managers too often feel that everyone should automatically do his best--"He's being paid a good salary and quality work is no more than management has a right to expect." This quick to criticize, slow to praise type of management leads to employee apathy. . . . This is the corrosive attitude which destroys employee motivation. No organization can afford to allow it to develop.¹⁷

Oganovic clearly feels that middle management is hurting incentive awards in most agencies. He further supports his claim of low interest in Incentive Awards Programs by showing that less than one tenth of the Federal payroll was spent on awards in 1969.¹⁸ Macy also points the finger at middle-management, for lack of force in driving home the benefits of the federal incentive system.¹⁹

At this stage of this author's research, it must unfortunately be written that there is more literature that tells of the problems associated with this subject, than tell of its successes. While the field study in Chapter V will provide original research on the subject, a detailed study by the U.S. Air Force will provide advance warning of the field study results. This study was based upon information obtained from questionnaires answered by 8,154 Air Force Civilian employees working at 48 bases in the United States. The questionnaire

¹⁷Nicholas J. Oganovic, "Management by Objectives and Beyond," Civil Service Journal, X, No. 10 (October-December, 1969), p. 1.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 2.

¹⁹Macy, "A Cost-Conscious Work Force," p. 22.

asked numerous questions relevant to employee attitudes toward the Air Force Incentive Program. Some of the more significant findings follow:²⁰

(1) 73 per cent of those questioned had never submitted a suggestion during their employment with the Air Force.

(2) The participation rate of supervisors doubled that of non-supervisors.

(3) Most employees were not aware of the details of the program.

(4) Less than 50 per cent had been encouraged by their supervisors to participate.

(5) 50 per cent of those submitting suggestions considered evaluations unfair.

Again, as shown in criticism preceding this USAF study, the problem appears to start with improper emphasis and administration of the program by middle and top management.

Congress was next to criticize the incentive awards system, in a full scale subcommittee hearing on the administration of the Federal program. The House report pointed to an increasing trend of participation, but showed that only 25 per cent of all Federal employees participated in the program during fiscal year 1966. The hearings also found poor communication, poor program administration, excessive processing times, and other miscellaneous faults,

²⁰U. S. Department of the Air Force, "Seventy-Three Percent Untapped Potential," A Study of the USAF Incentive Awards Program, prepared by the Directorate of Civilian Personnel, Headquarters, USAF, 1965, pp. 1-5.

including difficulty of management to determine award eligibility, i.e., whether or not performance exceeded job requirements. The subcommittee report tasked the Civil Service Commission with initiating action to implement House recommended improvements.²¹

On March 4, 1969 the Civil Service Commission requested all Federal activities to make the improvements, recommended by Congress.

Getting back to the Navy, the question that must be asked is: just how effective has the Navy's Incentive Program been in motivating its civilian employees to support the Department's organizational objectives and programs? The answer, according to Frank Churney, Director of the Navy's Office of Motivation and Incentives, is that the program is not very effective. Churney gave three reasons for his answer: (1) lack of top and middle management interest at the organizational level; (2) little faith in the program by employees, and (3) inadequate advertising of the program. Churney went on to say that he believes that both the current motivational level and the number of recommended improvements would remain the same even if the program were discontinued. Churney thinks the whole problem of lack of interest by management, is due to a lack of understanding of the vital role that incentive awards can play toward's management's own interests.²² This last statement certainly supports this writer's opinion that management at all

²¹U. S. Congress, House of Representatives, Subcommittee on Manpower and Civil Service, House Report No. 885, pp. 1-5.

²²Frank X. Churney, interview held in Washington, D.C. on February 15, 1972.



levels, does not comprehend the motivational potential of the program. More will be added later in this thesis, on this comment.

The following fiscal year statistics tend to support Churney's evaluation of the Navy program:²³

TABLE 1
FY 1971 INCENTIVE AWARD STATISTICS

<u>Category</u>	<u>Fed.</u>	<u>USAF.</u>	<u>Army</u>	<u>Navy</u>
The annual rate of suggestions submitted per 100 employees	13.7	17.0	21.4	10.3
The annual rate of suggestions adopted per 100 employees	3.7	4.6	5.7	3.6
The number of approved performance awards per 100 employees	4.0	3.0	6.4	3.8

²³U. S. Civil Service Commission, Annual Report to the President and Congress on FY 1971, Appendix H, "Incentive Awards Statistics -- FY 1971."

In that these statistics do not break down duplicate submissions, it can only be stated that somewhat less than 10.3 per cent of Navy civilians participated in the suggestion program, and less than 3.8 per cent received superior performance awards. The Navy also was lower than the total Federal government in all categories, and lower than other services in all but performance awards, where it exceeded the USAF by only .8 per cent. Disregarding the Navy for a second, the real source for concern, that is shown by this chart, is the large drop in overall participation relative to the pre-Congressional subcommittee hearings, i.e., the FY 1966 participation total (suggestions plus performance awards) was 25 per cent compared to less than 17.7 per cent for FY 1971. So, even with the changes promulgated by the Civil Service Commission in 1969, the program performance, in terms of participation, is much worse. The biggest crime regarding this situation, is that the Civil Service Commission only advertises the positive side of the picture--the increased cost savings over previous years. Granted, the savings are higher, but participation is lower, and participation is the name of the motivational game. President Nixon congratulated the Civil Service Commission on the success of the FY 1971 program²⁴--apparently he has not been advised that in terms of participation, the program is failing. Why it is failing, will be addressed in detail, in Chapter V of this study.

²⁴Letter, President Richard Nixon to Robert E. Hampton, Chairman Civil Service Commission, November 24, 1971.

OTHER NAVY MOTIVATIONAL TOOLS

John Macy lists dedication to "front line" forces as a motivational tool that DOD has working for it, that other agencies do not have.²⁵ The strength of this so-called tool, with respect to motivation of Navy employees, will be discussed as part of the field study results, in the next chapter.

Frank X. Churney pointed out other areas, that he considered as tools of Navy motivational theory, that supplemented the Incentive Awards Program.²⁶ Like Brengel of the Civil Service Commission, Churney believes that the Navy throws a big portion of its motivational philosophy into the hands of the middle management supervisory force. As he put it:

our executive training programs are oriented toward opening their eyes to motivational needs, and the instruction includes the current literature on the subject; however, it's up to the individual to make it work.²⁷

Churney added that the Merit Promotion Program and the Performance Appraisal and Rating Program were also considered as tools of the Navy motivational philosophy.

The Performance Appraisal and Rating Program is essentially the civilian counterpart to the military fitness report. Employees

²⁵Macy, "A Cost-Conscious Work Force," pp. 21-22.

²⁶Frank X. Churney, interview on February 15, 1972, Washington, D.C.

²⁷Ibid.

are evaluated by immediate supervisors, on an annual basis, in three rating areas: Quality of Work, Quantity of Work, and Adaptability. Grades of outstanding, satisfactory and unsatisfactory are recommended in accordance with the aggregate of day-to-day appraisals by supervisors. Grades of outstanding and unsatisfactory are accompanied by written evaluation, and are reviewed by divisional supervisors. Final ratings are approved by a local command performance rating board. The objectives of the program, are to encourage supervisors to employ communication of job requirements, with the ultimate result being a motivated employee and improved performance. An outstanding rating in all three categories, can result in a cash award, or quality step increase for the employee. An outstanding award also serves as part of the rating criteria in the Merit Promotion Program. These incentives to the employee represent the motivational aspects of the Performance Appraisal and Rating Program.²⁸

The Merit Promotion Program is the name given to the system of determining who gets promoted. The word "merit" simply implies that the individual promoted deserves the promotion based on his overall record of job performance and other rating criteria. The aim with this program is two fold, to promote the most qualified personnel through a fair system, and to provide a system that encourages (motivates) high performance.²⁹

²⁸Department of the Navy, Naval Forms and Publications Center Joint Instruction 12430-2A, January 20, 1965, pp. 1-4.

²⁹Ben Gershkof, Director Personnel Management Evaluation Branch, Navy Office Civilian Manpower Management, interview held in Washington, D. C. on February 15, 1972.

SUMMARY

This chapter has shown that there is no formal Federal philosophy relative to motivation, but that the Civil Service Commission relies primarily on managerial responsibility and a Federal Incentive Awards Program. The Chapter covered the application of incentive awards within the Navy, and discussed overall effectiveness of the program, as seen by various writers, administrators, and a Congressional subcommittee. A look at fiscal year statistics was also used to measure the motivational impact of the program. The chapter concluded with a brief look at some of the other motivational tools in use by Navy management.

CHAPTER V

THE REAL WORLD

Thus far, this thesis has provided answers for two of four subsidiary research questions. In doing so, "motivation" has been attacked from various angles--its definition, relationship with Naval logistics, history and most significant theories have been discussed--in addition, a search for a Federal and Navy motivational philosophy was conducted, and all available motivational tools were identified.

This chapter will cover subsidiary questions three and four, and their combined answers should provide a basis for reaching a logical conclusion to the primary research question.¹

The first section of this chapter will report on research conducted to determine the motivational level of federal employees associated with Navy logistics, i.e., is there a motivational problem? Section two will discuss the "why" relative to the conclusions reached in section one. Section three will look at the effectiveness of the motivational tools, and section four will relate the results of a "before and after" study of a logistical work group, and apply the theories of Likert, Maslow, Herzberg, Argyris and McGregor to these results.

¹The primary research question and subsidiary research questions are listed on page 4 of the introduction to this thesis. Subsidiary question three asks for employee motivational level determination, and whether or not motivational tools are adequate. Question four, asks if modern motivational theory explains the results of a before and after study of a logistical work group.

IS THERE A PROBLEM?

The research plan to answer this question entailed: first, the selection of a representative logistical operation, and second, determination of the motivational level of the employees at this activity. The activity chosen was the U.S. Navy Aviation Supply Office (ASO) in Philadelphia, and the steps to assess a motivational level included interviews with, and questionnaires to their customers, their supervisors, their civilian, industrial associates, a group of interested Navy Supply Corps Officers, and the employees themselves.

Before discussing the research findings, it seems important to briefly describe the overall operation of the selected activity. ASO, like the other three Navy inventory control points is in the Naval Material Command. As shown in Figure 8, ASO receives command and policy guidance from its immediate boss, the Naval Supply Systems Command, and technical guidance plus weapons system program data from the Naval Air Systems Command. The mission of ASO is essentially to provide supply support to Naval and Marine aircraft throughout the world. To accomplish this mission, ASO is staffed with approximately 90 naval officers, and 2000 federal employees. The physical plant includes over 16 million dollars in ADP equipment. Currently, ASO supports an 8900 aircraft inventory valued at 14.1 billion dollars, with a 450,000 item spare part inventory valued at 3.1 billion dollars.

ASO spare part responsibility begins with issuance of a prime aircraft contract to a civilian industry by the Naval Air Systems Command (NAVAIR). Based on technical guidance and program

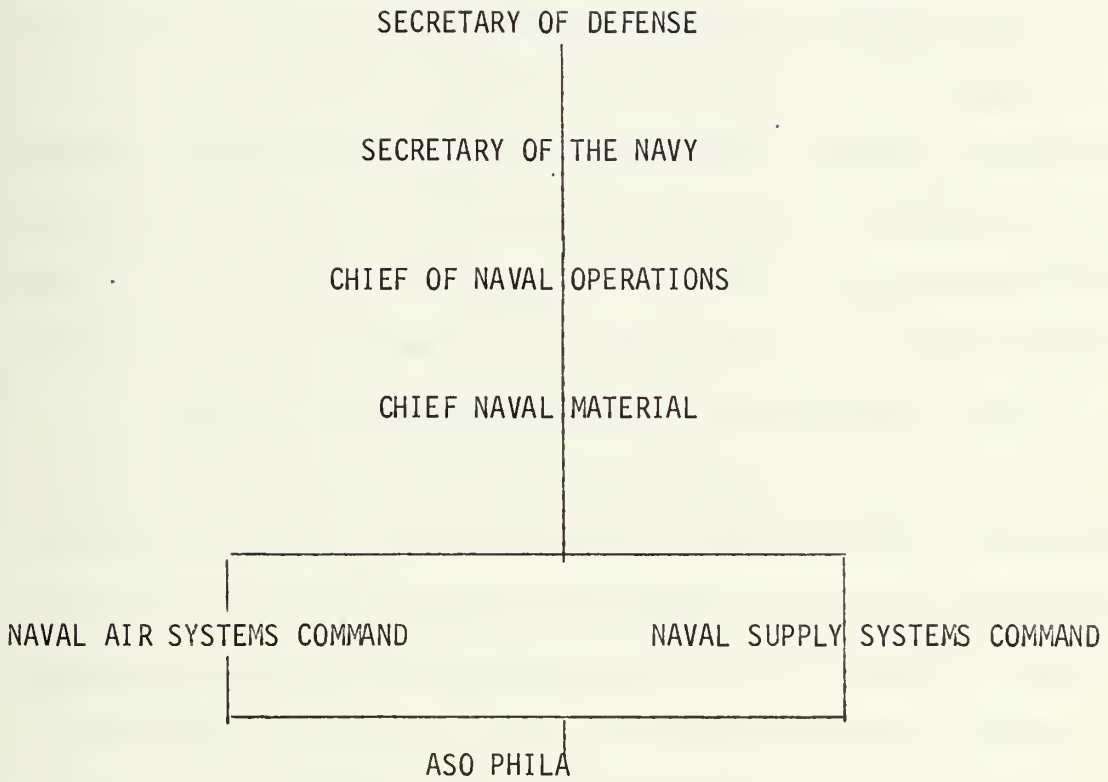


Fig. 8.--Chain of Command

data (forecasted flying hours, number aircraft, etc.), ASO builds a program support plan, determines item stocking criteria, and initiates spare part procurements with civilian contractors. At the direction of ASO, contractors ship material to 29 stocking points, throughout the world, for ultimate use by operating squadrons and Navy repair facilities. ASO, and its "real-time" ADP operation is the hub of all support activity--from purchases of 517 million dollars annually, to processing of 10,000 requests per day, to controlling repair of 500,000 units per year. This is ASO--nerve center of the aviation supply system.² The federal employees that make it tick are the subject of this research.

The use of a personally developed questionnaire, shown in Appendix A, represented the means of obtaining opinions from customers relative to the motivational level of the ASO employees. The questionnaire was answered by a total of forty-four individuals from selected east and west coast Naval Air Stations, and from Commander, Naval Air Force Atlantic; and Pacific staffs. For obvious reasons, the names of the individuals as well as the names of their organizations must remain anonymous. However, it can be related that the individuals selected have direct and frequent contact with ASO, and can be classified as customers in every sense of the word. They are the supply interface between the operating squadrons and ASO--they depend on ASO for timely and adequate support. It is the opinion of this author that these

²Department of the Navy, The ASO Operation, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1971), pp. 1-25.

people know the ASO operation, are well qualified to distinguish between good and bad service, and therefore represent a fair judge of ASO employee motivation.

Question one simply indicated that two respondents were civilian, while forty-two were military.

Question two indicated that the grade structure for military ranged between AKA and Lieutenant Commander. The civilians were a GS-6 and a GS-11. The military breakdown was two airmen, three officers, five first class petty officers, five chief petty officers and twenty-nine second class petty officers. A second class petty officer is an E-5 pay grade.

Question three indicated that the average respondent had been associated with ASO an average of four years. This experience level is additional proof that these individuals are familiar with the overall program and responsibility of ASO.

Question four results show that the average contact between the forty-four individuals and ASO is forty phone calls per week.

Question fourteen is considered the most significant on the questionnaire, and will be discussed next. This question lists fifteen possible descriptive characteristics, and asks the participant to select "any" that best describe the average ASO employee. The following percentages relate to respondent selection of each individual characteristic. It was possible, the way the question was presented, that each characteristic could have been selected by all forty-four respondents, i.e., each characteristic could have received a 100 per cent rating. The results in tabular form follow:

TABLE 2

FEDERAL EMPLOYEE CHARACTERISTIC RATINGS
BY CUSTOMERS

<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>Per cent</u>
(a) highly motivated	18%
(b) moderately motivated	50
(c) poorly motivated	31
(d) hard working.. . . .	0
(e) basically lazy	9
(f) cooperative	9
(g) unconcerned	18
(h) responsive	9
(i) not very responsive, seems to be going through the motions	27
(j) always has an excuse	9
(k) great at passing me to someone else	9
(l) dedicated to supporting the fleet	4
(m) dedicated to himself	9
(n) up to date	0
(o) out dated	4
(p) others	5

The results are rather conclusive that the ASO employee is not considered to be highly motivated. The most shocking fact is that 31 per cent consider him as being poorly motivated. This poor rating is further supported by the 27 per cent rating for category (i), i.e., not very responsive, seems to be going through the motions, and category (g), i.e., unconcerned.

Question seven asked for a categorical description of the ASO employee's reaction to a phone call problem from a customer. This question was designed as a test of the consistency of the respondents. The results, as shown in Table 3, do relate consistent ratings. Category (b) rated 18 per cent and compares to the 18 per cent for category (a) in Table 2. Likewise, Table 3, category (d) with 27 per cent compares favorably with category (c) and (g) of Table 2. There is also a shocking indicator in Table 3, at least shocking to logistically oriented minds. The results report that for category (e), 32 per cent of the employees do very little when an item is not-in-stock (NIS), other than report the fact, and state that little can be done. Much more can be done, and it is the primary job of the inventory managers to do it. This area will be the subject of additional comment later in this chapter.

The remaining questions, of this questionnaire (Appendix A), will not be covered in detail, but their results generally support the conclusion, that the customer does not consider the ASO employee as being highly motivated.

TABLE 3

FEDERAL EMPLOYEE REACTION TO FIELD PROBLEMS
AS SEEN BY CUSTOMERS

<u>Reaction Description</u>	<u>Per cent</u>
(a) He usually refers me to another member	9
(b) He is deeply interested, and takes immediate action to assist	18
(c) He provides timely and accurate status	4
(d) He seems unconcerned, and says he will get back to me	27
(e) He usually says the item is NIS, and that delivery is X months away, He says there is nothing more he can do	32
(f) He is moderately cooperative, and seems concerned about my problems. He seems to pursue most possible paths to satisfy my requirement, including close communication with contractors . . .	27
(g) He fakes concern, but really accomplishes little .	13
(h) He does little for me, but tells me about all his problems	18
(i) He likes to make deals, i.e., I'll get you one, if you'll give me FSN	3
(j) He seems lazy	9
(k) He enjoys giving me a rough time over matters such as priority, allowance, etc.	3

Perhaps some of the respondent's comments will serve to emphasize the conclusion reached above. A Chief Petty Officer, with more than 20 years service, and with 12 years of direct association with ASO stated: "They aren't very aggressive, but they're better than the other ICP's."³ A Senior Chief Petty Officer commented: "Even the guy that does give a damn, and they are few and far between, is too restricted by cumbersome rules and outdated supply policy." Finally, a Lieutenant Commander, Supply Corps, added: "On the whole, most employees seem overcome by their problem, have a defeatist attitude to start with, and appear not to have the personal drive or ability to overcome these problems. What they need is a long tour on the other side of the fence!"

The second step in this assessment plan was a series of interviews with management personnel from a number of civilian contractors. These gentlemen were asked for their opinion of the motivational level of the average ASO employee. Their comments follow:

"Ed, most of them wouldn't last here for more than a month. I've worked close to these people for years, and sometimes can't believe it. Well, to put it politely, they aren't very aggressive."⁴ "The motivational level is low, in fact maybe even poor. However, it's not just ASO at fault, The problem starts at the initial provisioning,⁵ when the NAVAIR technicians appear to go through the motions of determining failure rates. Sure, we're glad when our recommendations are accepted, but they don't even test us.

³ICP's are the Navy Inventory Control Points, previously shown in Figure 2.

⁴This direct quote was taken from a taped interview with an official from McDonnell-Douglas Aircraft Corporation, on February 1, 1972. For obvious reasons, the individual must remain anonymous.

⁵Initial provisioning refers to the action taken to determine spare parts requirements of repairable aircraft assemblies.

Of course, then when all hell breaks loose at sea, it was our fault. Back to ASO. If you recall, Ed, during the real heat of our program problems we had representatives all over the world collecting data, but until you entered the program, no one even listened to us. The inventory manager didn't want to be troubled into making an add-on buy that would help everybody concerned."⁶

"You know you've put me in a bind. Off the record, Ed, I don't think they really care."⁷

"I've tried to talk to those guys about these M61 failure rates for two years, but no one cares until the crunch comes, then it's G.E.'s baby."⁸

. The author will not comment further on this step. The votes have been counted.

The third step, was a questionnaire to ten supply officers, now attending graduate school at George Washington University. The questionnaire data gives evidence of their qualifications to rate employees. They have all, been either a customer, or a supervisor of civilian staffed activities, during their average 10 year careers. Examples of their tours include: ASO, Philadelphia, Ships Parts Control Center, Mechanicsburg, Fleet Material Support Office, Mechanicsburg, Naval Supply Systems Command Headquarters, Naval Material Command Headquarters, and numerous ships, Naval Air Stations, and stock points.

⁶This direct quote was taken from an interview with a logistical representative from Westinghouse Aerospace Division on February 2, 1972. The official requested to remain anonymous.

⁷This comment was from an official from Ling-Temco Voight on February 2, 1972. The official requested to remain anonymous.

⁸This quotation came from an interview with a representative from General Electric on January 20, 1972. The official requested to remain anonymous.

Table 4 gives the results of the questionnaire shown in Appendix B.

TABLE 4

FEDERAL EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION RATING
BY SELECTED SUPPLY OFFICERS

<u>Rating</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
a. high	10
b. moderate	50
c. poor	40

Again, the story is clear--there appears to be a problem. The results to question four of Appendix B, the "why" answer for the rating, will be used in the next section of this chapter, which is devoted to the reasons behind the motivational level.

Step four, involves another questionnaire, which is enclosed as Appendix C. This questionnaire was developed to serve two purposes: first, to get the employee to place himself on a motivational scale, and second to have the employee explain what would motivate him to a better performance. This questionnaire was completed by exactly 100 employees. The size of this sample will be discussed later in this thesis. The results of the survey are included in Table 5.

TABLE 5

EMPLOYEE SELF-ANALYSIS

<u>Motivational Level</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
a. I consider myself highly motivated. I <u>do everything possible</u> to satisfy all job-related problems presented to me for solution. I work at my maximum capacity to support naval aviation	40
b. I consider myself moderately motivated. I <u>do a little more</u> than my position requires, but I have a lot of unused capacity/talent that could be utilized under the right circumstances	60
c. I consider myself as being poorly motivated. I merely go through the motions. Why should I kill myself; nobody else does. There is no real incentive to motivate me	0

The interesting aspect to this question, is that employees had nothing to lose by rating themselves as highly motivated, yet 60 per cent of them said this was not the case. The "why" behind this situation, which will be examined in the next section, is even more interesting.

The final step in establishing a motivational level, was an interview with Mr. A. C. Barlow, GS-16, who is the Executive Assistant to the Commanding Officer at ASO, and the senior civilian employee at ASO. Mr. Barlow is a veteran Federal employee, with over 40 years service. He has served in practically every capacity in the Navy logistical cycle--he has built airplanes, flown airplanes, repaired airplanes, and for the last 25 years has supported airplanes. Last year Mr. Barlow was awarded a Presidential Citation, for superior accomplishment. Mr. Barlow said bluntly:

Our people are not well motivated--neither are the people at ESO, SPCC or any other essentially white-collar supported activity. Neither are the Air Force, Army or Defense people well motivated. The problem is that we are too far removed from the action. Let me add that you have a different situation at the operating and repair level. . . .⁹

It is considered that Barlow has said enough to close this section.

More of this interview will be provided in the following section.

It is felt that the purpose of the research, just described, has been served. The research clearly indicates that the average motivational level of the ASO employees can be classified as moderate, and that this level has spillover effects in the form of logistical support deficiencies. Since a basic assumption in this thesis is that ASO is representative of most logistical activities, it is therefore concluded that the Navy-wide logistical employee motivational level is also moderate. While some might argue that ASO is a rather small sample relative to the entire population of 200,000 logistical employees in the Naval Material Command, it is this author's strong opinion that a larger sample would show the same results. The real test is to ask any ten people, who have been associated with logistical employees, what their opinion is of these employees. The answer, should reflect approximately the same results as shown by Table 4, the response of ten supply officers who have worked with logistical employees throughout their careers. The final argument in support

⁹A. C. Barlow, interview held in Philadelphia Pa. on January 25, 1972.

of the moderate level, is that upcoming reports of additional research in this thesis, based on a 44,587 employee sample, show that ASO is extremely representative of the entire logistical population.

Therefore, the previous assumption, that the moderate motivational level at ASO is representative of the total Navy logistical employee level, will be carried forward throughout the balance of this study.

WHY

A total of four questionnaires, and a multitude of interviews were utilized as a means of seeking a logical explanation for the existence of the motivational level that was encountered. The questionnaire shown in Appendix C, as previously stated, was completed by 100 ASO employees. This questionnaire was used as a substitute for the questionnaire shown in Appendix D, when it was decided by ASO management that the latter was too probing. As will be shown later, twenty-five copies of the Appendix D questionnaire were completed informally, by an additional twenty-five individuals. Data from both sources will be used in this report. The third and fourth questionnaires, are part of an official Navy personnel survey, and will provide research from a Navy-wide sample that will substantiate the ASO findings. These questionnaires are enclosed as Appendix E and Appendix F.

Question two, of the substitute questionnaire (Appendix C), asked the employee to list three factors that would motivate him to do a better job. Since there were 100 respondents, it was possible to obtain 300 different factors that would increase employee

motivation. Interestingly enough, close analysis of the 300 responses resulted in eleven distinct factor groupings which are listed in Table 6. In addition, one miscellaneous category has been added to account for factors that did not receive enough consideration to form a distinct grouping. The factor groupings are ranked relative to the percentage of respondents listing the grouping as a motivating factor. For example, 51 of the 100 respondents, or 51 per cent listed grouping (a), Provide more opportunity for advancement, as a motivating factor.

TABLE 6

EMPLOYEE MOTIVATING FACTORS

<u>Motivational Factor Groupings</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
(a) Provide more opportunity for advancement.	51
(b) Increase my feeling of accomplishment	39
(c) Give me more responsibility	35
(d) Provide more recognition for my efforts	33
(e) Improve the working conditions	32
(f) Make my job more interesting	26
(g) Keep me better informed	25
(h) Provide better training on new procedures	20
(i) Improve the supervision	18
(j) Miscellaneous	12
(k) Increase the pay	5
(l) Improve the consistency of military orders	4

Clearly, the higher level needs of the Maslow theory practically jump out at the reader of Table 6. However, rather than speak individually to these results at this time, it seems appropriate to present the findings of a similar question from another questionnaire (Appendix D). As stated previously, this questionnaire was not used formally during the field trip, because it was considered too probing by ASO management, industrial relations officials, and union leadership. However, through informal methods, the questionnaire was later completed by twenty-five additional employees. Question number seven, of Appendix D, asked the individual if he was satisfied with his job. Of the 25 responses, 18 said partly satisfied, and 7 said dissatisfied. At this stage of the research, it was not considered unusual that none reported complete job satisfaction. The next question was a direct follow-up to question seven, in that it requested each individual to select from a listing of seventeen factors, any that contributed to his job dissatisfaction. The answers follow, in Table 7.

TABLE 7

EMPLOYEE SELECTION OF FACTORS CONTRIBUTING
TO JOB DISSATISFACTION

<u>Factor</u>	<u>No. Individuals Selecting</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
(a) Incompetent supervision	4	16
(b) Unclear line of supervision (i.e., who's my boss, military or civilian)	2	8
(c) Working conditions (lack of air conditioning, etc.)	25	100
(d) Personal problems with other in my unit	0	0
(e) Inadequate salary	0	0
(f) Inadequate benefits (leave, retirement policy, etc.)	0	0
(g) Lack of job security	0	0
(h) Personal problems	0	0
(i) I don't know the "big picture" at ASO (policy, priorities, etc.)	7	28
(j) Lack of communication (i.e., I don't get the word on many occasions)	6	24
(k) I don't have a feeling of achievement upon completion of a task. (i.e., I don't get to see the results of my work)	18	32
(l) I rarely get any recognition for performance of job	21	81
(m) My job lacks content, (i.e., not challenging, boring.)	14	56
(n) I do not have enough responsibility	16	64
(o) The chance for advancement is very limited.	20	80
(p) There is little chance for personal growth in my job (i.e., learning new skills)	15	60
(q) I am not asked to participate in any type of planning	5	20

A ranking of Table 7, relative to the percentage of factor selection, and then a comparison of the results with the top ranked factor groupings of Table 6 leads to Table 8.

TABLE 8

COMPARISON OF TABLE 6 and 7

<u>Table 6</u> <u>Motivational Factor Groupings</u>	<u>Per</u> <u>Cent</u>	<u>Table 7</u> <u>Dissatisfaction Factors</u>	<u>Per</u> <u>Cent</u>
(a) advancement	51	(c) working conditions	100
(b) feeling of accomplishment .	39	(d) recognition.	81
(c) more responsibility	35	(o) advancement	80
(d) more recognition	33	(n) not enough responsibility.	64
(e) working conditions	32	(m) job lacks content	56
(f) make job more interesting .	26	(k) no feeling of achievement.	32
(g) better informed	25	(i) the big picture.	28

Close examination of this table, indicates that although the factors do not match horizontally, i.e., the top ranked factor in Table 6 is not the top ranked factor in Table 7, etc., the two tables do contain almost identical factors. It can be noted that the percentages in Table 7 are significantly higher than its counterpart in Table 6. For example, the need of recognition drew selection by 81 per cent of the respondents to Appendix D, while recognition was only listed by 33 per cent of the respondents to Appendix C. The key here, it is believed, is in the two words in the previous sentence, "selection" and "listed." The Appendix C questionnaire requested that individuals list (or

provide) motivating factors, while Appendix D actually provided the factors for selection. It seems logical that the latter questionnaire attracted higher percentages because of its captive features while the Appendix C questionnaire allowed the individual more freedom of choice, and certainly a wider range of possibilities.

Another criticism of the comparisons, is that Appendix C asked strictly for motivators, while Appendix D requested selection of work dissatisfiers. Students of Herzberg, would complain that therefore the comparison should not be made, in that a dissatisfier is a hygiene, and not the same as a motivator.¹⁰ The answer to this criticism, is that question 8 (Appendix D) was designed for the purpose of testing the Herzberg hypothesis, by including both motivators and hygienes in the same listing. However, the question was worded improperly, and for test purposes has been aborted. Nevertheless, it is considered that the respondents interpreted the question as requesting motivators rather than hygienes. This reasoning is based on the following:

(1) The almost identical comparisons to Table 6 motivating factors: (2) the fact that the participants did not recognize the difference between motivators and hygienes, and merely assumed that the questionnaire, being motivationally oriented, was looking for motivators; and (3) the answers to question ten (Appendix D) which again requested motivators, drew factors which directly corresponded to the individuals selections in question eight (Appendix D).

¹⁰The difference between motivators and hygienes was discussed in the Herzberg section of Chapter III.

So, if one accepts the above reasoning, which seems logical at least to this writer, the two separate surveys have revealed a listing of common motivational factors. The next effort involves one final study regarding the "why" of federal employee motivational levels.

During the field study at ASO, it was learned that a personnel study had just been completed by the Navy Office of Civilian Manpower Management (OCMM). OCMM, as previously described in this text is a Secretary of the Navy--controlled activity responsible for all civilian employee personnel administration. This personnel study is part of a new program at OCMM, called The Self-Evaluation Program. As explained by Ben Gershkof, director of the program, it is designed to assist an activity with an evaluation of its personnel administration policies and procedures. The basis of the program is two questionnaires (one for supervisors and one for workers), which were designed so that a large sample of the activity could by nature of their answers pinpoint any personnel problems. The questionnaire program has replaced the previous field team audit, and according to Gershkof allows the activity to evaluate itself--thus the name Self-Evaluation Program.¹¹ Although the primary purpose of the program is to direct attention to personnel policy trouble spots, there are numerous questions that pertain to this thesis. The worker questionnaire is enclosed in Appendix E, and the supervisor questionnaire in Appendix F.

¹¹ Ben Gershkof, interview held on March 3, 1972.

Questions used, will relate to the findings of the ASO research and substantiate these findings with data from this larger sample. The OCMM survey dated November, 1971 has been answered by 44,587 employees, which represents a 44 per cent sample of 32 Naval activities. Also, these activities are primarily logistical activities within the Naval Material Command, and include:

- (1) All Naval Supply Centers (Stock Points)
- (2) Naval Air Rework Facilities
- (3) Naval Shipyards
- 4) ASO Phila (ICP)
- (5) SPCC Mechanicsburg (ICP)
- (6) Fleet Material Support Office, Mechanicsburg
- (7) All Naval Material Systems Command Headquarters.

The motivational factor groupings determined from the research done with Appendix C, and reported in Table 5 will be used as the base for comparison with the OCMM study. Table 6 is the logical choice over Table 7 because it was based on a larger sample, the percentages are considered more realistic, and there is little difference between the Table 6 and Table 7 factor descriptions. Table 9 which follows, is a repeat of Table 6, incorporated with a supporting question from the OCMM questionnaires. Note that the percentage columns under the OCMM data reflect "undecided" and "no" replies to the question, except where indicated.

TABLE 9

ASO RESULTS vs. OCMM STUDY

Table 6 Motivational Factor Groupings %	OCMM Study Data	Undeci- ded %	No %
(a) provide more opportunity for advancement 51	46. I am satisfied with the progress I have made at this activity. .12		37
(b) increase my feeling of accomplishment 39	5. I get personal satisfaction from my job. . . 3		29
(c) give me more responsibility 35	1. My skills and abilities are being well used in my job10		27
(d) provide more recognition for my efforts 33	11. My supervisor usually gives me no credit when I do a good job12		24
(e) improve the working conditions 32	There was no question in this area x		x
(f) make my job more interesting 26	59. The work I do is interesting.13		23
(g) keep me better informed . . 25	48. I generally know what is going on at this activity18		25
(h) provide better training on new procedures 20	25. I have recieved all the training I need in order to do my job18		34
(i) improve the supervision . . 18	53. I do a lot of unnecessary work *yes 27 also 27,* From the supervisor questionnaire My work load is such that I have little time to devote to assisting my employees		32

TABLE 9 Continued

ASO RESULTS vs. OCMM STUDY

Table 6 Motivational Factor Groupings %	OCMM Study Data	Undeci- ded %	No %
(j) Miscellaneous 12	Not applicable		
(k) Increase the pay 5	23. the pay is about right for the work I do 15		38
(l) improve the consistency of military orders 4	No question on this. . . x	x	x

Since Table 9 is rather self-explanatory, it is not felt that a factor-by-factor narrative is necessary. It is believed, however, that with the exception of the two factor groupings, without a related OCMM question, that the OCMM percentages fully justify the author's opinion that the motivational factors developed by ASO study can be considered as representative of employee attitudes throughout the field of Naval logistics. Relative to the factor grouping without supporting questions; the first factor (e), working conditions, is most likely a problem peculiar to ASO. The building is not air-conditioned and the Philadelphia summers are responsible for the factor grouping ranking in the top five.

The second factor not having a supporting OCMM question, is factor (l) on consistency of military orders and since even in the ASO research it was only selected by 4 per cent of the sample, it will be dropped from further consideration.

From this point of the study on, the top ranked motivators identified in the ASO research, and substantiated by the OCMM study will form the base of all future discussions. The only exceptions will be the addition to this base, of two additional motivating factors discovered in the OCMM study.

Replies to question fourteen of Appendix E indicate that 22 per cent, of the 44,587 man sample, said that there were no opportunities for personal development and improvement, while another 17 per cent were undecided. This problem relates directly to much of the thought behind most motivational theory, and therefore, must be added to our overall list. The same importance can also be related to question fifty-five (Appendix E), wherein 30 per cent of the respondents said that their supervisors do not try to obtain employee ideas about the job.

Table 10, which follows, represents a summary of the factors groupings, shown with abbreviated descriptions, that this research has identified as the problems leading to the motivational level previously presented. Another way of stating this point, is to say that Table 10 represents a summary of the factors that employees considered would motivate them to a better job.

TABLE 10

SUMMARY OF MOTIVATORS

Abbreviated Factor Descriptions

- (a) Advancement
- (b) Feeling of Accomplishment ✓
- (c) Added responsibility ✓
- (d) More recognition ✓
- (e) Working conditions ✓
- (f) Job content ✓
- (g) Big picture ✓
- (h) Better training
- (i) Improved supervision
- (j) Increased pay
- (k) Opportunity for self-development
- (l) Participative management ✓

LISTEN TO THEM TALK

This section is intended to provide more detail on the Table 10 factors, in the form of direct quotations from employees, obtained from the questionnaire or during interviews:

Advancement

"There is no such thing." "I'm a college grad, and entered here on a GS-5 to GS-7 to GS-9 program. Well, it's now four years later and I've attained my nine....the problem is, there's no other place to go....There are few openings for GS-11, and the eligibility list is packed with people with my qualifications, and ten years additional experience. . . . Why should I bust my tail . . . as I said there's no place to go." "I'm a GS-11, and like many other elevens, will stay one the rest of my life There just aren't enough twelve penings to go around Sure it stems my motivation . . . yes, more than anything else."

In closing this section, Dr. Eric Winslow summarizes what is happening in this area better than any available literature:

In Herzberg's way of thinking, one could easily say that the Federal Government has changed advancement from a motivator to a hygiene.¹²

Feeling of Accomplishment

"Yes, I realize that the Navy depends on us to support airplanes, but it's hard to see what all this paper has to do with an airplane." "I just manage part numbers, why I don't even know what most of these things look like, where they go on a plane, or

¹²Dr. Eric Winslow, Head, Management Science Department, George Washington University, interview held on March 7, 1972.

how important they are." "Do you know that for a long time, I thought than an F-4 'Phantom'¹³ had a propeller." "When I satisfy a NORS,¹⁴ what happens, the plane might still be unflyable for other reasons. Just how important is a NORS anyway?" "I've worked here for six years and still don't really understand the importance of my job Is what I'm doing really helping someone out there?" "The bi-weekly NORS listing has so many NORS that at times mine seems very insignificant." "Do supply officers fly airplanes too?" "I'm criticized if I don't process so many documents per day. What does this have to do with aviation. I just don't get much satisfaction from processing paper." "I'd feel better, if once in a while we'd hear something from the operating people that really make us seem important. they criticize, but rarely is it constructive." "I think every manager should visit a squadron and talk to the maintenance people, maybe then this paper would mean something." "Show me how my efforts lead to the success of an aircraft carrier deployment." "Allow me to present my work to top management, instead of letting my supervisor do it. I do the work, presenting it would add to my feeling of achievement." "I do my job, but the repair facilities don't do theirs the result is the plane still

¹³The F-4 "Phantom" is a Navy jet aircraft, manufactured by McDonnell-Douglas Aircraft Corporation, St. Louis, Missouri.

¹⁴A "NORS" is a requisition code which identifies a spare part requirement that is preventing the return of an aircraft to flyable condition.

doesn't fly, but I usually get the blame." To this author, this area is one of the most critical. The coverage of the work group at the end of this chapter will hit this area quite hard.

Added Responsibility

"I am capable of more than just processing paper." "Let me write my own messages that tell it like it is. I know the situation better than my supervisors anyway." "Why does my supervisor always represent me to middle and top management?" "Why does my work get checked so frequently, and why can't I as the item manager determine who to buy from and how much to spend as long as I stay within a prescribed budget?" "Give me, as a repairable item manager, the responsibility for the component parts. I'm tired of being hurt by lazy consumable managers." The majority of the comments under this category can be summed up in this statement by an irate female during a rather tense interview: "I have too much talent, just give me more responsibility."

More Recognition

Most comments on this factor, made it very clear that the individual wasn't interested in great financial reward, but rather just a feeling from management that they were part of the organization, and that their efforts were appreciated. Some of the more meaningful response follows: "I've been here for fifteen years, and have never received even a pat on the back." "My supervisor gets a lot of credit, but I rarely do." "I get a lot of criticism on problem items, but nobody recognizes that most of my items are in good stock position." "The fleet people always criticize . . . just once, I'd like to get a

message that says well done." "The only people who ever get recognition are the ones who write beneficial suggestions during working hours, instead of doing their job." "The rating system is terrible, supervisors must go through too much writing to award an outstanding. The result is, that there are few outstandings awarded. This snowballs and affects promotion status, and possible monetary reward."

Working Conditions

This factor, as mentioned previously, is probably more important at ASO, than the rest of the logistical environment because of the air-conditioning problem. Every questionnaire that listed working conditions, also discussed air-conditioning. The comments all go something like this" "My capacity for work, or motivation, or anything else you might call it takes a big dip when summer comes to Philadelphia. This building is like a furnace, and sure, production suffers."

Job Content

This is the area that Herzberg calls "work itself."¹⁵ Most ASO employees, called the job "boring." "It's the same thing day after day, year after year." "Too much paperwork." "There is no opportunity for creativity, there is a procedure for everything." "This job is bureaucracy at its zenith." "The problem is that the job is not constantly challenging . . . it's not that it's never a challenge, it's that it's not an everyday challenge." "As Herzberg

¹⁵National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p.21.

would say, we need some job enrichment around here." This last individual obviously has read something, and he just about "hits the nail on the head."

Big Picture

This one is essentially the old communication problem. "I just don't see my part in the big picture." "Procedures change, and we aren't told why." "Would you believe that I don't even know who the Executive Officer is." "If we are having funding problems, or ADP capacity problems, then tell us about them. We shouldn't be kept in the dark, just guessing whats up." "I usually get the word through the grapevine, before I get it officially." "If the A7E is supposed to get in-house priority, then tell everyone, not just the A7E people." "We never see the Admiral." "What goes on inside the MIC?"¹⁶

Better Training

There were two types of complaints in this area. First, the newer people complained that most of their training consisted of on-the-job training from experienced employees, but that the trainers were too busy to do much instruction, or were outdated: "My training consisted of five days sitting beside a busy old-timer, and then full responsibility for a range of items." "I didn't learn much from my trainer, he was always on the phone." "Everything I know came from

¹⁶The "MIC" is the ASO Management Information Center, an executive briefing room.

making a mistake the first time." "I just don't understand the supply system." The second type complaint came from more experienced employees: "My basic training was sound, but we are told nothing about how to handle new procedures." "The computer has changed everything here, but we were never taught the new procedures." "A new procedures comes out in the form of a two inch book, and we get one hour in training from someone who is as confused as we are." "Install a new ADP program, but don't explain the manual requirements . . . that's how it is around here."

Improved Supervision

"The supervisors are outdated." "Workload is not distributed properly." "My supervisor wants to do everything himself." "Our leader should retire." "I think that my supervisor spends 90 per cent of his time auditing our work. He doesn't supervise anything." "Our supervisor is too worried about the length of our coffee breaks." "My supervisor doesn't want to get involved with my problems." "My supervisor is always tied up making a report. He's never available to advise." "Most supervisors around here consider themselves at the top, and the top means not getting involved." "My supervisor is a consumable item specialist, he never saw a repairable in his life." "Who is my supervisor, Joe or that new Lieutenant?"

Increased Pay

While only 5 per cent of the ASO samples included increased pay as a factor, 38 per cent of the OCMM sample said that their salary was not right for their job. This could be interpreted in two ways, i.e., they might have meant that they were making too much; however,

this approach doesn't appear logical. This subject was discussed with Mr. Al Barlow, the senior civilian at ASO:

Ed, I think the difference between ASO and the overall sample depends on the location of the activity. For example, its much more expensive to live in Washington than Philadelphia, and a large part of that sample came from Washington.

Since pay will not be covered in connection with the work group, a concluding analysis follows. Pay, to the "giants" of Chapter III is directly associated with the rational-economic man concept of Schein, and Theory X of McGregor.¹⁷ It represents a basic physiological need to Maslow, which as explained previously, must be satisfied before higher level needs become motivators. Herzberg, also talks to pay, but not as a motivator-- to him, pay is a hygiene or a dissatisfier and like Maslow's lower level needs, must be satisfied if an individual is to rise above them to self-actualization. However, as he put it, "like longer vacations, increased pay does not motivate."¹⁸ Whether or not Herzberg is correct about pay is not too important to this thesis--there just isn't much that can be done about Federal pay scales. It seems to this author that money affects each Federal servant differently. For example, some have been noted to slow their output when it was known that overtime funding was available, while others, (the majority) practically refused to work overtime. Getting home at 4:30 was more important to the latter group than money.

¹⁷These specific theories of Schein and McGregor, were previously discussed in Chapter III.

¹⁸Herzberg, The Motivation to Work, p. 126.

Further, the author feels that Federal pay is more than adequate, and probably is better than industry pay for equivalent type positions. So, since pay cannot be changed easily, and it seems logical that it is not a true motivator, it will not be discussed again in this study.

Opportunity for Self-Development

This factor was found deficient in Federal government by 22 per cent of the OCMM sample, another 17 per cent were undecided. This equates to 17,500 people, who don't think that their job provides an opportunity for growth. This factor digs deeply into the heart of motivational theory. Here are some of their comments: "Ten years, and I still do the same thing." "I don't know anymore now than I did fifteen years ago, about this job." "I think we should rotate between divisions. I'd love to learn something about purchase, or technical or finance." "I think a man's job has to keep him learning, if not he becomes almost dead." "Once a clerk, always a clerk." This last one seemss to say it all--this is an area that needs a long hard look by higher Federal authority.

Participative Management

Although not a factor in the author's ASO research, the OCMM study indicates a possible soft spot at ASO and Navy-wide. At ASO, 34 per cent (OCMM survey) said that their supervisors never asked for employee ideas, while 30 per cent of the Navy-wide sample agreed. Follow-up interviews on this point found a lot of displeasure at ASO. In fact, seven out of ten people interviewed indicated a desire to participate in unit management. For example: "I have ideas about

certain projects that just have to be more effective than the ones we use, but I'm never asked No, I don't volunteer information." "People should have some say in the overall operation of any work unit." "My supervisor thinks he knows it all, so does the Commander." This area will be discussed in more depth in the work group section.

This concludes the second part of this chapter. A quick look back seems to indicate that two of the stated objectives of this chapter have been reached, i.e., to determine a motivational level for logistical employees, and to examine the "why" behind this level. The third section reflects a brief examination of the effectiveness of the Navy motivational tools.

SOME RUSTY TOOLS

It might be logical to deduce that a moderate motivational level would equate to moderately adequate motivational tools. Unfortunately, the indications from this study are that the tools are somewhat less than moderately adequate. The case behind this statement will be brief and to the point, because the picture is quite clear--the tools are extremely rusty.

Chapter IV, listed the following tools behind the Navy's motivational theory:

1. The Incentive Awards Program
2. The Merit Promotion Program
3. The Performance Appraisal and Rating Program
4. Supervisory responsibility.

Chapter IV presented a lengthy commentary on Incentive Awards, including criticism from various sources, i.e., writers, Congress, a U.S. Air Force study and fiscal 1971 program Federal statistics. Most significant of these criticisms, are the 1971 Civil Service Commission statistics, which point to a disgustingly low participation rate at all levels of DOD. The field study at ASO presented the opportunity for looking at this participation rate first hand. The Appendix C questionnaire (question 19) asked respondents what the Incentive Awards Program meant to them. Twenty-two out of twenty-five stated that it meant virtually nothing. None of these twenty-two had ever participated in the beneficial suggestion part of the program, and none had received a superior accomplishment award. The official ASO statistics compared to the total Navy statistics (from Table 1) follow:¹⁹

TABLE 11
INCENTIVE AWARD STATISTICS
ASO vs NAVY
FY 1971

	<u>ASO</u>	<u>Navy</u>
Annual rate of suggestions submitted per 100 employees	10.9	10.3
Annual rate of suggestions adopted per 100 employees	2.2	3.6
The number of approved performance awards per 100 employees	4.5	3.8

¹⁹The ASO statistics were obtained from the ASO Incentive Awards Statistics clerk on January 25, 1972.

The participation rate at ASO is slightly higher than the Navy-wide figure, but the adopted suggestion percentage is considerably lower. It would appear that the answer to the inadequacy of Incentive Awards, is shown in these statistics. At least to this writer, a program that attracts less than 10.9 participation (beneficial suggestion submission) and makes awards to less than 5 per cent of its people, cannot be considered an adequate motivational tool.

It is also the opinion of this author, that the Merit Promotion Program no longer has any significant motivational effect. This statement is based on the previously discussed research regarding the low number of promotion opportunities at ASO. The following portion of a recent newspaper article also substantiates the current promotion situation:

Promotions in government have almost come to a halt. More agencies are tightening rules in an effort to make it harder for employees to qualify for upgrading.

Many workers claim it is unfair for Uncle Sam to change service and experience requirements in mid-career. At least one major federal union is preparing to take the government to court unless new qualification standards are relaxed.

The get-tough government policy has three origins:

*The White House order for a government-wide graded escalation with agency quotas that must be met by this June 30, with another drop due by June 30, 1972. As reported here earlier, defense has been given a one-year breathing spell, but it, too, is moving to limit upward movement of its 1.2 million civilians.

*The thinking--now translated into policy--that federal pay and fringe benefits are as good, or better than those in industry.

*The tight labor market that has increased the number of qualified applicants for most federal jobs, including those once considered shortage categories.

Promotions are now so hard to come by that the American Federation of Government Employees is planning an appeal first to the Civil Service Commission and, if that doesn't work, to the courts.

Promotion qualifications vary by agency and job, based on legally established minimums for time-in-grade to qualify for higher pay, and experience requirements tailored for particular jobs and grade levels. Both criteria have been, or will be raised, according to a spot check by this column. . . . Some Navy commands have slapped the severest promotion guidelines this column could find. Locally, some units reportedly have stretched out normal time-in-grade standards from 2 to 7 years and have also tacked on additional experience time requirements to the minimums needed for promotion consideration.²⁰

The theme of the research, and this article add up to the most commonly heard comment at ASO (relative to this subject): "Why should I bust my tail . . . as I said there's no place to go."

The Performance Appraisal and Rating Program also has its deficiencies, and does not appear to be a motivator. The reasons are two-fold: one, the rank and file consider that the evaluation system is prejudiced, i.e., interviews point out that most employees think that the "outstanding" ratings go to GS-11, 12 and higher personnel, and second, people believe that the rating procedures are so complicated that supervisors are reluctant to get involved. Actually, there is evidence to support both arguments. Of the 78 outstanding ratings in 1971 at ASO, 60 of them went to GS-11 positions or higher-- a figure of 77 per cent.²¹ Also, five out of seven supervisors agreed that the detailed rating procedures, which include lengthy written justification, do in fact keep them from recommending more people for awards. ASO has recently recognized both of these weaknesses

²⁰Mike Causey, "Federal Promotions Becoming Rare," The Washington Post, February 7, 1972, p. D9.

²¹This information was also obtained from the ASO Incentive Awards statistical clerk on January 25, 1972.

and plans to take corrective action.²² If the ASO research is considered representative in this area, as it has been proved to be in others, it would appear that another prime motivational tool requires an overhaul.

The final tool, supervisory responsibility is rather intangible, and its effects proved quite difficult to measure. An attempt at measurement was made through question thirteen in Appendic C. This question asked if either the military or civilian supervisor have any motivational effect on the employee. The answers varied considerably in content, but close analysis finds that 60 per cent of the employees considered that the supervisors had little effect on them. The majority of the similar answers said that supervisors were too busy with the details of their jobs, or that they didn't seem to care about motivation. This small sample certainly cannot be used to state unequivocally that the supervisory efforts Navy-wide are inadequate. However, the list of motivational deficiencies listed in Table 10 certainly fall under supervisory purview, and on the surface, their efforts to correct these deficiencies do seem to be inadequate.

A LOGISTICAL WORK GROUP

This section of Chapter V, is included to show a typical work situation involving employees with attitudes and needs identified

²²Ed Wolfe, Chairman, ASO Self-Evaluation Program, interview held in Philadelphia on January 25, 1972.

throughout this report. A profile will be described of the employee motivational level, and the effects of this level on job performance, before and after the formation of a special work group. The motivational changes within this group will then be explained through application of the theories of Likert, Maslow, Herzberg, Argyris and McGregor.

BEFORE

In 1968, the Navy deployed two squadrons (24 planes) of its newly operational F4J "Phantom" jets to Southeast Asia, aboard the aircraft carrier, USS America. During the early stages of this deployment, both squadrons experienced critical spare parts shortages, and the situation at ASO Philadelphia, the Navy activity responsible for aviation logistical support, was marked by a high degree of tension and top management concern. To put it bluntly, the ASO was not performing its mission of supporting this aircraft. The history as to why the situation developed involves many decisions, some good, some bad, and not all the responsibility of ASO; however, the "buck" at this point and time stopped in Philadelphia. The real trouble-maker was the fire-control radar, the AWG-10, manufactured by Westinghouse Aerospace in Baltimore. This system, is used to detect, and then control missile fire at enemy aircraft. Needless to say, a "down" system renders a fighter almost useless.²³ ASO's problem was

²³A "down" radar system refers to a nonoperative system, usually in need of spare parts. It is also a "NORS."

was that both squadrons were averaging 70 per cent "down" time on the AWG-10 system. The ASO operation to support AWG-10, included six employees in the F4J stock control section, and elements of the technical, financial, purchase and planning divisions. The word "elements" is used, because no one individual was responsible, i.e., a specific job might be handled by any employee in the unit involved. The bulk of the responsibility at this time, however, fell on the shoulders of the stock control section.

A profile of these people, based on daily, personal contact will provide an idea as to the effect of poor motivation on job performance. These employees were not the least bit concerned over a situation that was getting progressively worse. Message after message from squadron, type, and fleet commander levels was extremely critical, while at the same time almost pleaded for assistance. The employee attitude was one of relating the fault of another division or Navy activity as the reason for this disaster. Little was done to improve actual support. The employees processed their paperwork as usual, apparently waiting for an act of God to improve things, or better yet for the squadrons to complete their deployment. "No one cared," is the best way to describe the circumstances. When the 4:30 p.m. bell rang, everyone left, including supervisors--the fact that the fleet was still working did not matter. Finally, top military management got the true picture of what was happening and the "after" story began.

AFTER

The corrective action taken by ASO, started with the creation of a special work group. This group, not only improved the AWG-10 support posture, but also had some interesting motivational effects. This narrative will attempt to present both sides of this work group story.

The work group was headed by a Navy Lieutenant-Commander (LCDR.) and included, from stock control, a GS-12 assistant, two GS-11 repairable item managers, three GS-9 consumable managers, and a GS-5 stock control trainee. The unique feature about the group was the inclusion of representatives from the technical and purchase divisions. In addition, an individual was named in all other divisions as the AWG-10 Coordinator. The AWG-10 group worked directly for the ASO Operations Officer, who is the third senior officer at ASO. All other chain of command relationship were dropped. In effect, the group resembled a "project management" organization. The group had representation that crossed divisional lines, and gave it enough authority to both purchase and control spare parts. In addition, its coordinators from other divisions developed a sense of responsibility toward the success of work group operations. The LCDR. then developed inter-command contacts and close relationships with all civilian contractor logistical organizations. The prime contractor, Westinghouse, even sent a representative to join the ASO group. Individual jobs within the group were designed to give each manager as much control and responsibility as necessary to do his work. In addition to the regular procedural aspects of the job, managers were designated

as coordinators for various activities. For example, a GS-11, whose normal job was to try and control repairable assemblies, was also designated the group liaison director for the USS America, while another member was responsible for Naval Air Station, Miramar. These managers were essentially responsible for performing their basic jobs, in addition to coordination of all problems relative to a specific activity. A communication channel was developed that ensured immediate transferral of fleet requirements directly to stock points or contractor sources without the previous paperwork delays. All procedures were, in effect, streamlined to every degree possible. Deficiency listings were obtained from the USS America, and emergency procurements were made to airship material to Southeast Asia. Further, daily situation reports were designed to keep on top of future USS America emergencies. The coup of the group, however, involved the discovery of the major reason for the AWG-10 support problems (aside from the previous poor employee performance). This "core" problem was that operationally, AWG-10 component failure rates were greatly exceeding the predicted rates (which were the basis of the original spare parts procurement.) In other words, ASO might have procured 500 of an item to support a failure rate of one failure every twenty-five flying hours, when in actuality the part was failing once every five hours. It does not take a math major to determine that the original buy of 500 would not last long. Corrective action on this problem added another tremendous burden on the group--a complete review of approximately 10,000 individual items, and additional procurements of over 10 million

dollars. This action did not immediately solve the problem, because of an average ten month lead time per item, but it was the beginning. The subsequent ten month period was one of "staying on top, or fire-fighting," i.e., continuation of cooperative, responsive action by all managers. Although there were some rough spots during the period, thanks to a new spirit by all ASO employees concerned, and almost perfect cooperation by Westinghouse, the ten months went by without another major crisis. In fact, almost ten months later, to the day, ASO was satisfactorily supporting three additional carriers, a Marine squadron in Viet Nam, three major Naval Air Stations, and a Naval Aviation Rework Facility. An ending profile of the group is the most amazing part of this story. People were concerned, they cared about response times and critical messages. Why they were even working overtime without pay! They had made a 180 degree change. These people actually reversed an almost catastrophic situation to a logistical support success story.

In conclusion to this chapter, let's look at what caused this fantastic reversal.

ANALYSIS

The work group accomplished more than just improved logistical support for a jet aircraft. In fact it did some things that were not recognized until recent weeks.²⁴ First of all, the very nature of its

²⁴This comment infers that while the logistical improvements of the work group were widely recognized, the work group effect on the employee motivational level was not understood until the author became deeply involved with this research.

structure follows closely the Argyris theme of "project management" i.e., the creation of work groups that cut formal organizational lines, and bring together people with a collection of skills to tackle a given job.²⁵ Its structure also entails the McGregor idea of "invitation to innovation," wherein the organization is designed such that it is propelled by the motivation of its people. In effect this group did set the stage for enlargement of competence, added self-regulation, and a strong probability for personal growth.²⁶ It also represented, in Likert terminology, a "group theory of organization," wherein the unit head could deal collectively with a group to solve problems, that previously required man-to-man methodology.²⁷

The work group established an arena for satisfying needs of employees, even though individual needs were the last thing on anyone's mind at the time of the work group creation. If one can believe the almost miracle-like turn-around achieved by the work group with respect to logistics, then one must also believe that personal needs were satisfied--there is just no other explanation for the change in the motivational level of the people involved. In the

²⁵This theme was previously referred to in the Argyris section of Chapter III.

²⁶This statement refers to McGregor's description of the environment that must be created to breed good motivation. Refer to the McGregor section of Chapter III.

²⁷Likert's "group theory" was covered in the Likert section of Chapter III.

opinion of this author, the work group management recognized, without realizing it at the time, a Maslow-like hierarchy of needs,²⁸ and managed the group so that these needs were integrated with the goal of the organization.²⁹ The goal of the organization is easily recognized as the rapid improvement of logistical support of the F4J, and the needs of the individuals are now recognizable as the motivator factor groupings developed in this thesis, and listed in Table 10. A look at these needs with respect to the work group, will close out this final section of Chapter V.

Advancement

Although the work group could not guarantee advancement, some interesting situations occurred. One temporary GS-11 job was created as a result of the group--the man selected for the job was the best worker in the group. The GS-5 trainee saw good performance as the key to her GS-7 and GS-9 "automatic" promotions. During the 10 month "fire fighting" period, the second GS-11 was promoted to the only GS-12 opening at ASO. The temporary GS-11 filled this permanent position, and the open temporary slot was used as bait to catch the best GS-9 available in ASO. Knowing that this temporary GS-11 job could lead to a permanent one, this individual "worked his tail off."

²⁸The Maslow "hierarchy of needs" was presented in the Maslow section of Chapter III.

²⁹This idea of goal integration is the theme of the Argyris section in Chapter III.

Finally, another GS-9 in the group was promoted to a GS-11 opening in another activity, based on her very strong performance in the group, and a good recommendation from the LCDR. What this checkerboarding now indicates, is that people quickly saw that the group was building a solid reputation, and that advancement rewards, though few, were going to the outstanding group performers. Advancement, as shown by Herzberg was truly a work group motivator.³⁰

Feeling of Accomplishment

Argyris and Herzberg both see this as a motivator, in the sense of seeing the results of one's efforts. While the work group didn't let each individual build the entire radio,³¹ it came quite close. Wall graphs were maintained to show results of individual manager efforts, i.e., the America manager could see at a glance the weekly rate of up and down AWG-10 systems, and the number of missions each plane accomplished with an up radar. Lectures were arranged so that combat pilots could relate the meaning of an "up" system, and trips were made to air stations to look at combat aircraft. Films of carrier operations were also shown, and a visit to Westinghouse Aerospace was arranged. Most important, however, was the daily briefing presented by the LCDR, that gave all top management views, and a report of the latest "classified" message traffic.³² The

³⁰ Refer to the Herzberg section of Chapter III for a complete listing of motivators and hygienes.

³¹ Argyris uses the radio example in Personality and Organization (New York: Harper and Row, 1957), pp. 146-148, to demonstrate the effect on motivation, when an employee builds the entire product and can see the results of his effort.

³² "Classified" message traffic, is simply a telegram that has been restricted from individuals without proper security clearance.

message traffic reports from the field proved to be the major event of interest to the employees. The tone of the message told them the results of their recent efforts. It is recognized now, that these little things on the part of management meant a considerable amount to the worker.

Big Picture

The employee was given the big picture daily. There were no secrets--the good as well as the bad was promulgated. The people were aware of the full impact of F4J fleet operations on ASO--and knew where they fit in ASO's plan for supporting the F4J. This group was told everything that pertained to the F4J, from engineering changes to deployment schedule revisions, and they appreciated it. They became a part of the big picture at ASO--they belonged.³³

Added Responsibility

The work group took on added responsibility the minute it was formed. The LCDR. knew it, and made sure his work group knew it--the added responsibility was the reputation of ASO. It is a known fact that this situation motivated the LCDR, and is now almost certain that it motivated the people. In addition, responsibility was added in the sense that Herzberg sees responsibility, i.e., the employee's control over his own job.³⁴ The work group employees were not only responsible for their regular position description requirements, but assumed the added responsibility of the previously discussed coordinator functions.

³³This statement refers to the level of needs in the Maslow hierarchy that equates to belongingness.

³⁴National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p. 21.

More Recognition

This recognition need, or as Maslow listed it, the esteem need, has two distinct sub sets: the need to recognize one's own competence, and the need of recognition from others.³⁵ Both were easily satisfied by the work group environment. As the group progressed as a unit, and improved support, they were recognized as a group. Their reputation as a group grew, and it had a significant side effect on group members. They began to recognize their own competence was responsible for the group reputation. They recognized themselves, and became extremely self-confident. Their attitudes both individually and collectively, became one of "just try to give us a problem that we can't handle."³⁶ They were also recognized by complimentary communications from all fleet levels, as well as by the Commanding Officer of ASO. Three of the individuals were awarded superior personal achievements within nine months after the group was formed. Recognition proved to be a strong motivator of the work group.³⁷

Working Conditions

Although listed as a motivator in the ASO surveys, working conditions had no effect on the work group. They had no air-conditioning, but it didn't bother them. There was an occasional complaint, but nothing serious. It is felt that the provision of air-conditioning

³⁵ Again, this is a referral to the Maslow need hierarchy shown in Chapter III.

³⁶ The attitude was detected during the author's daily observation of the work group employees.

³⁷ This compares with the Herzberg theory that recognition is a strong motivator. Refer to the Herzberg section of Chapter III.

would not have motivated them to any higher level. This thought follows the Herzberg designation of working condition as a hygiene.³⁸

Job Content

This is the area that Herzberg calls "work itself," and is the area for application of his previously discussed "job enrichment"³⁹ theory. While it was not recognized that "job enrichment" was accomplished in the work group, it most definitely was. Workers were made responsible for their normal jobs, plus the job of activity coordinators. They were made accountable for a rise or fall of their activity indicators--these activities were modular in makeup, i.e., an individual had a carrier, or a group of Naval Air Stations, etc. Also, workers were given freedom to set their own break periods and lunch hours. All reports on their activities went directly to them, and their responses were prepared in final format for presentation to higher authority. In the true sense of job enrichment, individuals became experts on their modular assignments. Their jobs were more challenging than ever before--they knew it, and reacted favorably to it. A common response after a long days work was "You know, I learned something new today." Finally, their jobs were so challenging, that they rarely could say they were up-to-date--but again they kept striving to get there. These people "grew" as a result of the "work itself."⁴⁰

³⁸As shown previously in the Herzberg section, Herzberg sees working conditions, like wages, as strictly a hygiene factor.

³⁹The Herzberg theory of "job enrichment" was examined in the Herzberg section of Chapter III.

⁴⁰National Industrial Conference Board, Behavioral Science, p.21

Better Training

This factor was a necessity in the work group, and was provided. The GS-12 supervisor, was a thirteen year veteran, and was most capable. The unique procedures introduced into the group operation, such as a new communication channel, special ADP usage forecasts, and the total reprovisioning effort, all required explicit instructions. It is felt that good training was one of the most significant reasons for the group's progress.

Improved Supervision

Herzberg calls this one a hygiene.⁴¹ The work group picture shows it as a motivator and substantiates the ASO questionnaire research. Supervision in the work group was outstanding--the employees thought so, and top management thought so.⁴² The LCDR. was a true "linking pin", and the effort paid dividends. The needs of the group were recognized, and the policies of the top were passed down with ease. The group respected the LCDR because of his team spirit and the respect he commanded at the top. In Likert's mind this is "interaction-influence." Finally, and most important, the LCDR developed a sincere "supportive-relationship" within the group.⁴³ Members were made to feel like a vital cog in the wheel, and they

⁴¹ Herzberg, as shown in Chapter III, refers to supervision as a non-motivating hygiene. As stated above, the ASO research showed supervision to be a strong motivator.

⁴² The LCDR. was awarded a Secretary of the Navy Commendation Medal for his efforts.

⁴³ "Interaction-influence", and "supportive-relationship" were highlighted in the Likert section of Chapter III.

believed that they were. This idea of developing "supportive relationships" ties closely to the Likert findings in the Michigan studies relative to employee-centered supervision.⁴⁴ However, it must be pointed out that while employee-centered supervision was one key to the motivational success of the group, it was not the only key. In fact, a better description of the overall leadership methodology utilized in the work group comes from Schein, who in his "complex man theory" points to the need for flexibility. As he sees it, leadership must be employee-centered or production-centered depending on the demand of the situation.⁴⁵ This idea was the managerial strategy in the work group, and is probably the main reason for the motivational success of the group.

Increased Pay

The work group was not concerned about this factor. Money was never mentioned. The members even worked considerable amounts of overtime for nothing. Apparently, their basic salaries, were satisfying their lower level needs.⁴⁶ Actually, most of this group openly admitted that they considered Federal salaries more than fair.

⁴⁴Employee-centered supervision, was covered in the initial stage of the Likert section in Chapter III.

⁴⁵Schein, Organizational Psychology, p. 59.

⁴⁶This is another reference to the hierarchy of needs portrayed by the Maslow theory. See Maslow, Chapter III.

Opportunity for Self-Development

It is considered that work group members saw the opportunity to learn something from the unique operations that frequently occurred during the course of the critical ten month period. They were seeing the big picture, and were seeing how they related to it. They were learning the tricks of the supply system they saw films on Naval aviation, and they saw the inside operations of a commercial contractor. They learned from just sitting beside a talented Westinghouse representative, and they learned from their newly found association with purchase and technical group members. They certainly had opportunities that their previous jobs did not offer.

Participative Management

Management of the group never reached the continuum extreme of consensus decision making, but did include interaction between superior and subordinates, or as McGregor put it: "weighing, evaluating and projecting" proposals from all sources.⁴⁷ Employees were involved in the final decision, and as in the Argyris "mix model" the key was the authenticity in the relationship between management and workers.⁴⁸

It is felt, that in view of the research presented in this section, that it can justifiably be stated that the work group itself represented a motivational tool, and that the effects of this tool have been satisfactorily explained by the theories of Likert, Maslow, Herzberg, Argyris and McGregor.

⁴⁷ McGregor, The Human Side, p. 35.

⁴⁸ Argyris, Integrating the Individual, p. 147.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the field of Naval logistics, do present philosophies relative to the motivation of Federal employees need revitalization? This query is the primary research question of this thesis, and as such represents the apex of the author's personal effort. The search for the answer to this question was not only the goal of this thesis, but an answer of vital importance to the Naval logistical system.

The thesis was organized around four subsidiary research questions whose answers provide a basis for reaching a logical conclusion relative to the primary question. A summary, corresponding to these subsidiary questions follows: Chapter II answered the first subsidiary question, by providing a range of definitions to motivation, and then related the concept of work motivation to Naval logistics.

Chapter III built a background for subsidiary questions two, three and four, with a chronological presentation of this author's interpretation of the most important events in the history of motivational thought. Chapter IV also presented a detailed examination of the theories of the personally designated giants--Likert, Maslow, Herzberg, Argyris and McGregor.

Chapter IV related that the Federal motivational philosophy is a rather intangible subject. However, research did show that, in the opinion of experienced Civil Service Commission executives, that the unwritten, informal philosophy is one of motivation through the Federal Incentive Awards Program, and supervisory responsibility. The Navy philosophy was also found to be unwritten, but is based on the same ideas as the Federal concept. The actual motivational tools available to Navy managers, were identified in this chapter as:

1. The Incentive Awards Program
2. The Merit Promotion Program
3. The Performance Appraisal and Evaluation Program, and
4. Navy military and civilian supervisors.

It is considered that this chapter directly answered the second subsidiary question of the thesis.

Chapter V, in step-by-step fashion, answered the third, and most important subsidiary question. Based on response from fleet customers, civilian contractors, Naval Supply Officers, and the actual employees being studied, a moderate motivational level was concluded as representative of Naval logistical employees. In addition, the ASO research, backed by a large Navy-wide sample, uncovered twelve major motivating factors (needs) that require Navy managerial attention. These needs were analyzed relative to a "before and after" study of a logistical work group, and their satisfaction proved to be the difference between low and high employee motivation, and poor and excellent logistical support.

While the fourth subsidiary question is not an essential part of the answer to the primary research question, it was included to take the research one step further. The question asked if the motivational theories of the designated giants, explain the results of the "after" picture of the work group, and the Chapter V examination shows that they emphatically do. The question was also designed to show that modern motivational theory has application in Navy operational situations. Again the research proves that the theories should be applied to Navy problem situations.

The completion of the above subsidiary question summary, has led to the aforementioned apex--the answer to the primary question. In view of the research-backed answers to the subsidiary questions, it is hereby concluded that the present Navy philosophy relative to motivation of Federal employees definitely requires revitalization. More specifically, it is the opinion of this writer that the first step in the revitalization process, should be the establishment of a formal, written philosophy--a philosophy based on the motivational theories of the giants of Chapter III. While some might argue that such a formal document takes the form of bureaucracy at its zenith, this author sees such a document as a necessity--someone in the Federal government must assume responsibility for motivation. Current Federal and Navy management of the subject area is completely unsatisfactory. Neither the Civil Service Commission nor the Navy Department have a responsibility center for motivation. Both have Incentive Directors, and the Navy title even includes Motivation, but the only policy formulation from either office regards incentive awards. To

state it bluntly, there is just no one who really seems to care about the subject--the real philosophy appeared to this author to be: motivation can take care of itself. For the Civil Service Commission argument that incentive awards equates to motivation, this author would counter that the idea of incentive awards, i.e., "carrot and stick" theory, not only isn't working (the statistics of page 104 support this statement), but violates the principles that form the basis of the advanced motivational theories of the giants studied in Chapter III. To summarize then, the first specific recommendation by this author is the documentation of a Federal motivational philosophy based on advanced theory, and the establishment of a responsibility center to carry out the philosophy. Part of the operation of the program would also include agency and department responsibility centers. The documentation phase, must include a broad study of motivational levels and employee needs, and should be carried out with the direct assistance of experts from the field of behavioral science.

The next specific recommendation is directed at top military management, and is based on the author's personal feelings following the completion of research phase of this thesis. It is felt that motivational training programs, for officers, conducted by behavioral scientists, would result in fast and significant payback to the Navy. The author concludes that the majority of military officers are Theory X managers, with respect to their authority at civilian staffed commands. This writer is a perfect example. Until the personal experience with the work group previously described, it was felt that civilian employees were paid enough, and had an obligation to

perform in a highly motivated manner. Their needs were considered secondary, if at all--good logistical support was the only objective. Needless to say, the work group experience, coupled with an educational experience in behavioral science, have changed this personal philosophy drastically--others, must have this same opportunity--an opportunity to see what Theory Y, and other modern ideas can accomplish.

Fortunately, at least for the Navy, there is a glimmer of sunshine on the horizon. The February issue of the Navy Supply Corps Newsletter carried the address of Admiral Isaac C. Kidd Jr., as he assumed the position as Chief of the Naval Material Command, on December 1, 1971. On this occasion, Admiral Kidd implied that the employees of the Naval Material Command must improve their attitudes, their methods, and their productivity, if this nation is to maintain the high degree of readiness so vital to national security.¹ The relevance of Admiral Kidd's speech to this thesis was noted in one of his first major policy directives after taking command. On February 7th, Admiral Kidd directed all the Naval Systems Command Chiefs to present immediate input for a future program for motivation of Navy civilian employees. No additional details of this program were available as of this writing, but it appears that a senior manager has seen the requirement for motivational revitalization--a revitalization that this thesis fully supports.

¹Nancy Dimond, "Adm. I. C. Kidd is New CNM," Navy Supply Corps Newsletter, February, 1972, p. 13.

APPENDIX A

THESIS QUESTIONNAIRE TO CUSTOMERS

The purpose of this questionnaire is to provide a medium for obtaining background information relative to a master's degree thesis that I am writing on federal service worker motivation. To be more specific, I am requesting your opinion of the ASO PHILA, civilian employees, that you deal with in support of naval aviation. I'm not interested in your name, or the names of those you evaluate, rather I'm interested in your comments regarding their output, i.e.; do they care about the fleet, do they take your problems seriously, and do they do everything possible to satisfy your requirements. Hopefully, the following questions that I've designed will help you tell this story, if not, feel free to add additional comments. Finally, I urge you to tell it like it is. My thesis has been planned to surface existing problems, so if there are any, let me know.

1. Are you a civilian employee ____, military____? (check one)
2. What is your grade/rate ____?
3. How long have you been associated with ASO personnel _____?
4. Approximately how many times per week do you verbally (phone) request information from ASO____? (I'm assuming you verbally request assistance, when a written attempt (message, etc.) fails to satisfy your requirement.)
5. Approximately what percentage of the time does the "hot line" satisfy your problems____? (I assume that when the hot line fails, your next step is communication with the inventory (stock control) manager, and this communication is the area in which I'm most concerned.)
6. Does the inventory manager treat you with respect? (check one)
 - (a) always _____
 - (b) sometimes _____
 - (c) rarely _____

7. Select any of the following that describe your impression of the inventory manager's reaction to your problem.
- (a) He usually refers me to another number. _____
 - (b) He is deeply interested, and takes immediate action to assist. _____
 - (c) He provides timely and accurate status. _____
 - (d) He seems unconcerned, and says he will get back to me. _____
 - (e) He usually says the item is NIS, and that delivery is _____ months away. He says there is nothing more he can do. _____
 - (f) He is moderately cooperative, and seems concerned about my problems. He seems to pursue most possible paths to satisfy my requirement, including close communication with contractors. _____
 - (g) He fakes concern, but really accomplishes little. _____
 - (h) He does little for me, but tells me about all his problems. _____
 - (i) He likes to make deals, i.e., I'll get you one, if you'll give me FNS... _____
 - (j) He seems lazy. _____
 - (k) He enjoys giving me a rough time over matters such as priority, allowance, etc. _____
8. Does the manager know his item (enter changeability, supercedures, etc.)
- (a) always _____
 - (b) sometimes _____
 - (c) rarely _____
 - (d) hard to tell _____
9. If the manager can't help you, does he refer you to his immediate supervisor?
- (a) always _____
 - (b) sometimes _____
 - (c) never _____
10. Is the civilian supervisor helpful?
- (a) always _____
 - (b) sometimes _____
 - (c) rarely _____
11. Do you feel that the civilian supervisor is more concerned than the inventory manager?
- (a) yes, most always _____
 - (b) sometimes _____
 - (c) about the same _____
 - (d) less concerned _____

12. What percentage of the time do you require officer assistance relative to your problem _____?
13. Is the officer more concerned than the civilian employees:
- (a) yes, most always _____
 - (b) sometimes _____
 - (c) about the same _____
 - (d) less concerned _____
14. Okay, put it all together for me as well as you can. Select what you consider the characteristics of the average ASO civilian employee. Select as many as you consider appropriate.
- (a) highly motivated _____
 - (b) moderately _____
 - (c) poorly motivated _____
 - (d) hard working _____
 - (e) basically lazy _____
 - (f) cooperative _____
 - (g) unconcerned _____
 - (h) responsive _____
 - (i) not very responsive, seems to be going through the motions _____
 - (j) always has an excuse _____
 - (k) great at passing me to someone else _____
 - (l) dedicated to supporting the fleet _____
 - (m) dedicated to himself _____
 - (n) up to date _____
 - (o) outdated _____
 - (p) others _____
15. Anything you might like to add.
16. Thanks for your time.

Ed Straw
LCDR, SC, USN

APPENDIX B

Thesis Questionnaire to Supply Corps Officer Group

Subject Area: Motivation

1. How many years service _____?
2. List your previous duty stations _____
3. Based on your experience as either a customer or a supervisor, how would you rate civilian employee motivation:
 - (a) high
 - (b) moderate
 - (c) poor
4. Why?
5. Thanks, Ed Straw

APPENDIX C

Substitute Questionnaire to Employees

1. Select the following description that best describes your present feelings:
 - a. I consider myself highly motivated. I do everything possible to satisfy all job-related problems presented to me for solution. I work at my maximum capacity to support naval aviation. _____
 - b. I consider myself moderately motivated. I do a little more than my position requires, but I have a lot of unused capacity/talent that could be utilized under the right circumstances. _____
 - c. I consider myself as being poorly motivated. I merely go through the motions. Why should I kill myself; nobody else does. There is no real incentive to motivate me. _____
2. List three factors that would motivate you to do a better job than you are currently doing.
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
3. What do you like best about ASO?
4. What do you like least about ASO?

APPENDIX D

ORIGINAL THESIS QUESTIONNAIRE TO EMPLOYEES

Ladies and Gentlemen:

I am writing a thesis for my master's degree on the subject of motivation. This questionnaire will be used during this, and two additional field studies, as a medium to obtain "real world" data for comparison with accepted motivational theory. Your cooperation in completing the following questions is greatly appreciated. Please note that your name is not required, so tell it like it is. Thank you.

1. Are you male _____ or female _____?
2. What is your age _____?
3. Are you married _____?
4. What is your grade, GS- _____?
5. How long have you worked at ASO _____?
6. What is your job title _____?
7. Are you satisfied with your present job?
 - (a) completely _____
 - (b) partly _____
 - (c) dissatisfied _____
8. If you are not completely satisfied with your job, check any of the following factors that contribute to your dissatisfaction: (Select as many as are applicable.)
 - (a) Incompetent supervision _____
 - (b) Unclear line of supervision (i.e., who's my boss, military or civilian?) _____
 - (c) Working conditions (lack of air conditioning, etc.) _____
 - (d) Personal problems with other in my unit _____
 - (e) Inadequate salary _____
 - (f) Inadequate benefits (leave, retirement policy, etc.) _____

- (g) Lack of job security _____
- (h) Personal problems _____
- (i) I don't know the "big picture" at ASO (Policy, priorities, etc.) _____
- (j) Lack of communication (i.e., I don't get the word on many occasions.) _____
- (k) I don't have a feeling of achievement upon completion of a task (i.e., I don't get to see the results of my work.) _____
- (l) I rarely get any recognition for performance of job. _____
- (m) My job lacks content (i.e., not challenging, boring.) _____
- (n) I do not have enough responsibility _____
- (o) The chance for advancement is very limited. _____
- (p) There is little chance for personal growth in my job (i.e., learning new skills.) _____
- (q) I am not asked to participate in any type of planning. _____

9. Select the following description that best describes your present feelings.

- (a) I consider myself highly motivated. I do everything possible to satisfy all job related problems presented to me for solution. I work at my maximum capacity to support naval aviation. _____
- (b) I consider myself moderately motivated. I do a little more than my position requires, but I have a lot of unused capacity/talent that could be utilized under the right circumstances (i.e., more incentives.) _____
- (c) I consider myself as being poorly motivated. I merely go through the motions. Why should I kill myself, nobody else does. There is no real incentive to motivate me. _____

10. List three factors that would motivate you to do a better job than you are currently doing.

1.

2.

3.

11. Who is the Executive Officer at ASO _____?

12. Do the military supervisors really understand your problems:

- (a) yes _____
- (b) partially _____
- (c) they don't seem to care _____

13. Does either your military or civilian supervisor have any motivational effect on you? Explain.

14. In your opinion, military supervisors are:

- (a) concerned about production only _____
- (b) concerned about people and production
(my feelings as well as job output) _____
- (c) concerned more about people than production _____

15. In your opinion, ASO:

- (a) needs military supervision _____
- (b) would be better off without military supervision _____
- (c) needs military supervision with some changes _____

16. If you selected (c) above, what changes:

17. What do you like best about ASO?

18. What do you like least about ASO?

19. Does the incentive awards program mean anything to you? Explain.

Ed Straw
LCDR, SC, USN

APPENDIX E

OCMM SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE (EMPLOYEE)

1. My skills and abilities are being well used in my present job.
2. I have reviewed my job(position) description in the last year.
3. The same people seem to get the best assignments and promotions.
4. I am doing a better job because of the training I have received at this activity.
5. I am free to submit a complaint, grievance or appeal without it being held against me.
6. Rules and regulations I am expected to follow are made available to me in writing.
7. I would rather go to a union representative or someone other than my supervisor if I had a complaint.
8. I am better prepared for promotion because of training I have received at this activity.
9. The quantity and quality of work expected from minority group members is the same as for all other employees.
10. Recreational facilities and arrangements are all right.
11. My supervisor usually gives me credit when I do a good job.
12. My job (position) description pretty well describes what I do.
13. I get fair consideration for the better jobs I apply for.
14. There are opportunities at this activity for self development and improvement.
15. Disciplinary measures, when taken at this activity, are fair and within reason.
16. I have just as good a chance of getting ahead as any other employee here.
17. My supervisor keeps me pretty well informed of how I am doing my job.
18. I do too much lower level work that should be given to others to do.
19. We need an employee group or other organization to protect our rights.
20. I would mind working for a supervisor who is a member of a minority group.
21. Medical and health facilities are acceptable.
22. I can get help from my supervisor whenever I need it.
23. The pay for my job is about right for the work I do.
24. Promotions usually go to the best qualified.
25. I have received all the training I need in order to do my job.
26. My supervisor assists me in preparing beneficial suggestions.
27. I know when and where there are job openings that I may apply for at this activity.

28. Everyone does his fair share of the work in my unit.
29. Union members are treated the same as non-union members.
30. As far as job opportunities are concerned, men and women are treated the same.
31. I am free to discuss work improvements with my supervisor.
32. My pay is fair compared to the pay others are getting.
33. I am told promptly when there is a change in policy, rules or regulations that affect me.
34. This place would run better if it were organized differently.
35. Transportation facilities are O.K.
36. I have freedom to do things my own way, within reason.
37. I think they lean over backwards to give minority group members all the breaks.
38. I have a chance to make known my views before changes are made that affect me.
39. I understand how my job fits into the work of this activity.
40. Members of minority groups are treated fairly at this activity.
41. Bulletin boards keep me informed of things I need to know.
42. The title of my job is about right for the work I do.
43. Getting training is important if you want to be promoted.
44. I agree with the last performance rating I received.
45. I usually can take leave when I want it.
46. I am satisfied with the progress I have made at this activity.
47. The training I have received at this activity has helped me advance.
48. I generally know what is going on at this activity.
49. I am free to join a union if I want to.
50. I know how the pay for my job is set.
51. I know how to get my classification reviewed.
52. I understand how they pick people for promotion.
53. I do a lot of unnecessary work.
54. I know what I'm expected to do in my job.
55. My supervisor tries to get my ideas about things.
56. I get personal satisfaction from my job.
57. I am treated fairly and with respect.
58. Parking facilities are satisfactory.
59. The work I do is interesting.
60. I am too closely supervised.
61. I know the quality of work expected of me.
62. Eating facilities are satisfactory.
63. The work I do is important.
64. I know how much work is expected of me.
65. I would recommend this place to my friends as a good place to work.

APPENDIX F

OCMM SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE (SUPERVISOR)

1. I am satisfied with the quality of people referred to me for filling vacant positions.
2. Training is generally job and work related and the payoff is well worth the time and effort.
3. Certain related functions could be more efficiently combined under one supervisor rather than under separate supervisors as they are now.
4. During the past 12 months, I have given recognition to subordinates through quality step increases, superior accomplishment awards, or other means.
5. I am given the "why" and "reason" of information passed down to me so I can answer questions raised by my employees.
6. Once I become aware of a training need for my employees I can get the training accomplished within a reasonable time.
7. The equal opportunity program is supported by top management and other supervisors at this activity.
8. I am not aware of any complaints or causes of dissatisfaction within my group that have not been looked into or corrected.
9. The personnel office provides me with assistance in dealing with union representatives.
10. I have some employees whose performance is unsatisfactory and would like them reassigned or separated.
11. The merit promotion plan provides me with good applicants to choose from.
12. I meet periodically with my employees for the purpose of pointing out employee's progress as well as areas for improvement.
13. I know the procedure to follow when I become aware that position/job descriptions are out of date.
14. I have delegated authority to my subordinates to take action and make decisions whenever it is feasible and practical.
15. Personnel people who classify, train, recruit, and qualify, have more to say about my employees than I do.
16. As far as job opportunities are concerned, men and women are treated the same.
17. I participate in reviewing position/job description of my subordinates at least once a year.
18. The promotion system provides me with candidates for my vacancies in a reasonable time.
19. Members of minority groups in my work unit perform their jobs as well as the rest of my employees.

20. Frequently it is easier to transfer an unsatisfactory employee than to discipline or fire him.
21. The use of position/job descriptions limits my flexibility in assigning work to my subordinates.
22. My suggestions, criticism and opinions are given consideration by management.
23. My work load is such that I have little time to devote to guiding and assisting my subordinates.
24. I usually get my information from the "grapevine" and "scuttlebut" before I get it officially.
25. I have received training or guidance in how to appraise employees for promotion purposes.
26. I know when the job/position descriptions for my subordinates are not current or accurate.
27. I prefer not being a supervisor but it is the only way to get a higher grade.
28. I have received training in how to carry out my position management responsibilities.
29. My employees are free to bring their problems and complaints to my attention.
30. Employees leaving for higher pay elsewhere is a major problem for me.
31. I would mind working for a supervisor who is a member of a minority group.
32. I find it difficult to spare my employees for training off the job.
33. I regularly attend staff meetings with other supervisors and management officials.
34. I have sufficient authority to act on matters of discipline.
35. I am kept informed of the provisions of union agreements covering my employees.
36. Recreational facilities and arrangements are all right.
37. I have available to me a complete set of position/job descriptions for my subordinates.
38. Rules and regulations I am expected to follow are available to me in writing.
39. The difference in my pay over the pay of those I supervise is adequate.
40. In my opinion, members of minority groups are treated fairly.
41. I see to it that my subordinates know what is expected from them on the job.
42. I am given an opportunity to help plan future personnel policy.
43. There are positions in my unit that should be doing higher priority work.
44. I feel free to treat union members the same as I do non-union members.
45. I am aware of the objectives of the position management program.
46. Pay levels are sufficient to attract trained and qualified employees.

47. I get most of my information at the same time as my employees do.
48. I have received training in the federal labor relations program.
49. My position/job description pretty well describes what I do.
50. I could reorganize my unit and make it more effective and efficient.
51. I have sufficient authority to place and reassign my employees.
52. I discuss with my employees changes that will affect them.
53. I received training on how to be a supervisor.
54. My dealings with union representatives are satisfactory.
55. Medical and health facilities are acceptable.
56. I am getting maximum utilization of my employees, skills and abilities.
57. My skills and abilities are being well used in my present job.
58. Eating facilities are satisfactory.
59. I view the morale of my employees in my unit as high.
60. I have enough backing and authority to do my job.
61. Transportation facilities are OK.
62. When I do a good job my boss lets me know.
63. Parking facilities are satisfactory.
64. I know what I am expected to do in my job.
65. I would recommend this place to my friends as a good place to work.

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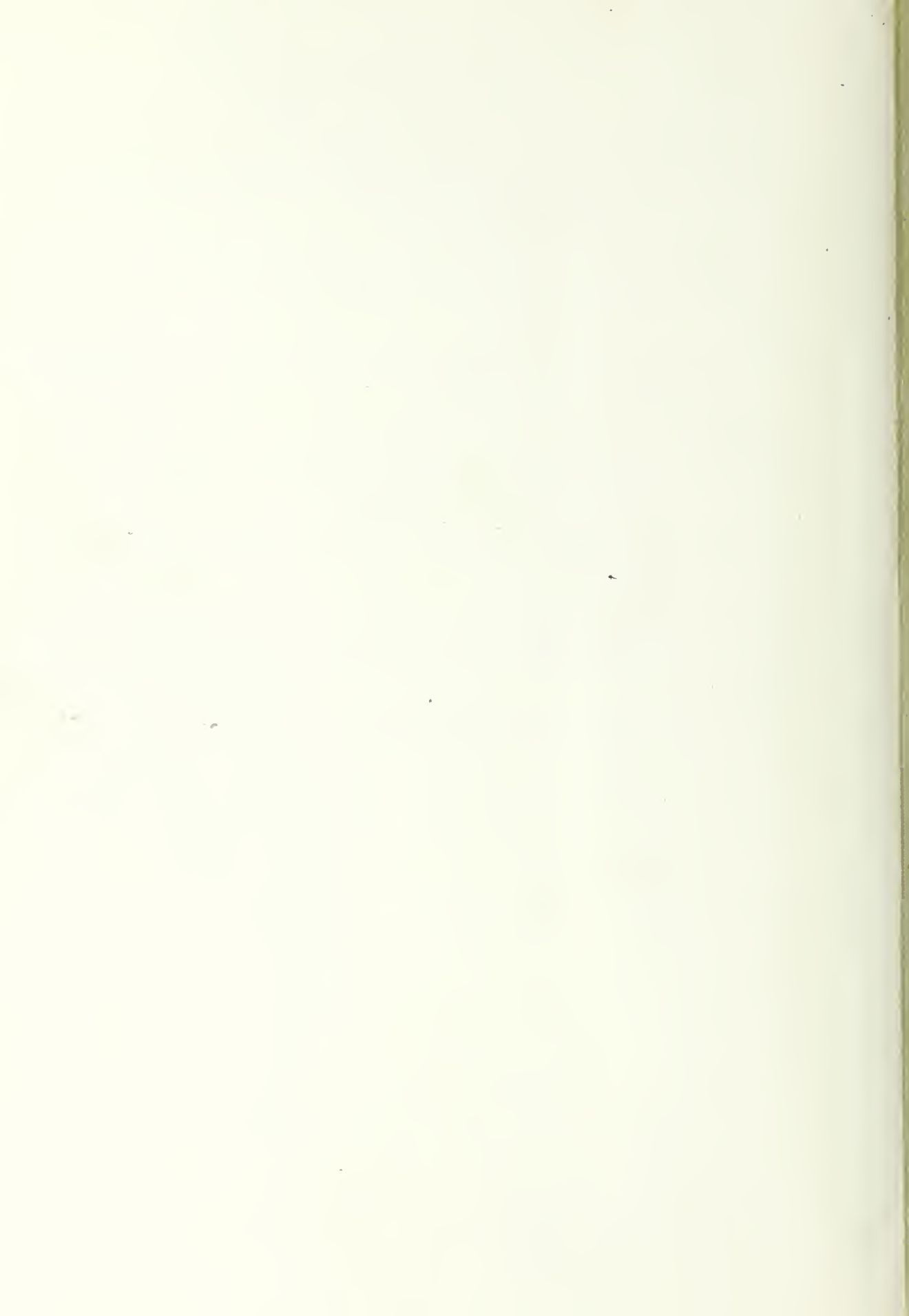
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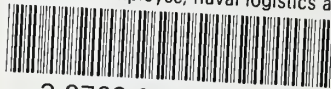
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